

EQUIVALENCE CLASSES OF MESH PATTERNS WITH A DOMINATING PATTERN

MURRAY TANNOCK

School of Computer Science, Reykjavik University, Reykjavik, Iceland

ABSTRACT. Two mesh patterns are coincident if they are avoided by the same set of permutations, and are Wilf-equivalent if they have the same number of avoiders at each length. We provide sufficient conditions for coincidence among mesh patterns, whilst also avoiding a longer classical pattern. Using these conditions we completely classify coincidences between families containing a mesh pattern of length 2 and a classical pattern of length 3. Furthermore, we completely Wilf-classify equivalences of mesh patterns of length 2 whilst also avoiding the classical pattern 231.

Keywords: permutation, pattern, mesh pattern, pattern coincidence

1. INTRODUCTION

The study of permutation patterns began as a result of Knuth's statements on stack sorting in *The Art of Computer Programming*[10, p. 243, Ex. 5,6]. This original concept—a subsequence of symbols having a particular relative order, now known as classical patterns—has been expanded to a variety of definitions. Babson and Steingrímsson [1] considered *vincular* patterns (also known as *generalised* or *dashed* patterns) where two adjacent entries in the pattern must also be adjacent in the permutation. Bousquet-Mélou, Claesson, Dukes, *et al.* [3] look at classes of pattern where both columns and rows can be shaded, these are called *bivincular* patterns. *Bruhat-restricted* patterns were studied by Woo and Yong [11] to establish necessary conditions for a Schubert variety to be Gorenstein. These definitions are subsumed under the definition of *mesh patterns*, introduced by Brändén and Claesson [4] to capture explicit expansions for certain permutation statistics.

When considering permutation patterns some of the main questions posed relate to how and when a pattern is avoided by, or contained in, a arbitrary set of permutations. Two patterns π and σ are *Wilf-equivalent* if the number of permutations that avoid π of length n is equal to the number of permutations that avoid σ of length n . A stronger equivalence condition is that of *coincidence*, where the set of permutations avoiding π is exactly equal to the set of permutations avoiding σ . Avoiding pairs of patterns of the same length with certain properties has been studied, Claesson and Mansour [6] considered avoiding a pair of vincular patterns of length 3. Bean, Claesson,

E-mail address: murray14@ru.is.

and Ulfarsson [2] study avoiding a vincular and a covincular pattern simultaneously in order to achieve some interesting counting results. However, little work has been done on avoiding a mesh pattern and a classical pattern simultaneously.

In this work we aim to establish some ground in this field by computing coincidences and Wilf-classes and calculating some of the enumerations of avoiders of a mesh pattern of length 2 and a classical pattern of length 3. We begin by establishing coincidences between mesh patterns of length 2 while avoiding a classical pattern of length 3, this is used to establish sufficient conditions for coincidence. We then establish Wilf-equivalence classes of these coincidence classes who avoid the classical pattern 231.

2. MESH PATTERNS

A *permutation* is a bijection from the set $\llbracket n \rrbracket = \{1, \dots, n\}$ to itself. The set of all such bijections on this set is denoted \mathfrak{S}_n and has size $n!$. We can denote an individual permutation $\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_n$ in *one-line notation* by writing the entries of the permutation in order, therefore $\pi = \pi(1)\pi(2)\dots\pi(n)$. The set \mathfrak{S}_n has exactly one element, the empty permutation ε .

Definition 2.1. (Order isomorphism.) Two substrings $\alpha_1\alpha_2\dots\alpha_n$ and $\beta_1\beta_2\dots\beta_n$ are said to be *order isomorphic* if they share the same relative order, *i.e.*, $\alpha_r < \alpha_s$ if and only if $\beta_r < \beta_s$.

The definition of order isomorphism allows us to give the meaning of containment for classical permutation patterns.

Definition 2.2. A permutation $\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_n$ contains the pattern $\sigma \in \mathfrak{S}_k$ (denoted $\sigma \leq \pi$) if there is some subsequence of indices of π , $i_1i_2\dots i_k$ such that the sequence $\pi(i_1)\pi(i_2)\dots\pi(i_k)$ is order isomorphic to $\sigma(1)\sigma(2)\dots\sigma(k)$. If π does not contain σ , we say that π *avoids* σ .

Example 2.3. The permutation $\pi = 24153$ contains the pattern $\sigma = 231$, since the second, fourth and fifth elements (453) are order isomorphic to 231, it also contains the occurrence 241. The permutation 24153 avoids the pattern 321.

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

We can display a permutation graphically in a *plot*, in such a plot we display the points $G(\pi) = \{(i, \pi(i)) \mid i \in [1, n]\}$ in a Cartesian coordinate system. The plots of the permutations $\pi = 24153$ and $\sigma = 231$ can be seen in Figure 1. Figure 2 shows the containment of σ in π as in Example 2.3.

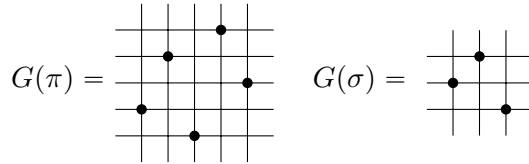


FIGURE 1. The plots of the permutations π and σ .

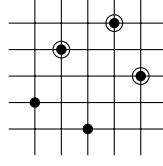


FIGURE 2. The occurrence of 231 in 24153 corresponding to 453.

Definition 2.4. A *mesh pattern* is a pair

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

We define containment (denoted $p \leq \pi$), 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 occurrence of τ in π . These restrictions say that no elements of π are allowed in the regions of the plot corresponding to shaded boxes in the mesh. These boxes are denoted by $[i, j]$, where the point (i, j) is the lower left corner of the box.

Formally defined by Brändén and Claesson [4], an *occurrence* of p in π is a subset ω of the plot of π , $G(\pi) = \{(i, \pi(i)) \mid i \in [1, n]\}$ such that there are order-preserving injections $\alpha, \beta : [1, k] \mapsto [1, n]$ satisfying the following two conditions.

Firstly, ω is an occurrence of π in the classical sense


- i. $\omega = \{(\alpha(i), \beta(j)) : (i, j) \in G(\tau)\}$

Define $R_{ij} = [\alpha(i) + 1, \alpha(i + 1) - 1] \times [\beta(j) + 1, \beta(j + 1) - 1]$ for $i, j \in [0, k]$ where $\alpha(0) = \beta(0) = 0$ and $\alpha(k + 1) = \beta(k + 1) = n + 1$. Then the second condition is

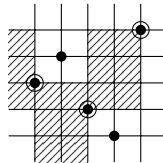
- ii. if $[i, j] \in R$ then $R_{ij} \cap G(\pi) = \emptyset$

We call R_{ij} the region corresponding to $[i, j]$. We define containment of a mesh pattern p in another mesh pattern q as above, with the additional condition that if $[i, j] \in R$ then R_{ij} is contained in the mesh set of q , in this case we call p a *subpattern* of q .

Definition 2.5. A mesh pattern $q = (\kappa, T)$ *contains* a mesh pattern $p = (\tau, R)$ as a *subpattern* if κ contains τ and $\left(\bigcup_{[i, j] \in R} R_{ij}\right) \subseteq T$.

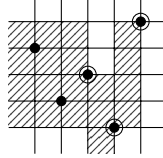
Example 2.6. The pattern $p = (213, \{(0, 1), (0, 2), (1, 0), (1, 1), (2, 1), (2, 2)\}) =$  is contained in $\pi = 34215$ but is not contained in $\sigma = 42315$.

Let us consider the plot for the permutation π . The subsequence 325 is an occurrence of 213 in the classical sense and the remaining points of π are not contained in the regions corresponding to the shaded boxes in p .



The subsequence 325 is therefore an occurrence of the pattern p in π and π contains p .

Now we consider the plot for the permutation σ . This permutation avoids p since for every occurrence of the classical pattern 213 there is at least one point in one of the shaded boxes. For example, consider the subsequence 315 in σ , this is an occurrence of 213 but not the mesh pattern since the points with values 4 and 2 are in the regions corresponding to the boxes $[0, 1]$ and $[0, 2]$, which are shaded in p . This is shown in the plot below.



This is true for all occurrences of 213 in σ and therefore σ avoids p .

We denote the avoidance sets for mesh patterns in the same way as for classical patterns. Given a mesh pattern $p = (\sigma, R)$ we say that σ is the *underlying classical pattern* of p .

3. COINCIDENCES BETWEEN MESH PATTERNS

Coincidences among small mesh patterns have been considered by Claesson, Tenner, and Ulfarsson [7], in which the authors use the Simultaneous Shading Lemma, a closure result and one worked out special case to fully classify coincidences among mesh patterns of length 2.

Two patterns λ and γ are considered *coincident* if the set of permutations that avoid λ is the same as the set of permutations that avoid γ , *i.e.* $\text{Av}(\lambda) = \text{Av}(\gamma)$. Equivalently we can say that they have the same set of *containers*, *i.e.* $\text{Cont}(\lambda) = \text{Cont}(\gamma)$.

We will consider the avoidance sets $\text{Av}(\pi, p)$ where π is a classical pattern of length 3 and p is a mesh pattern of length 2 in order to establish sufficient conditions for two such sets to be coincident. We will fix π in order to define these coincidences and say that π is the *dominating pattern*.

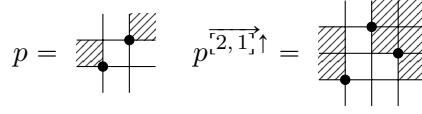
In order to describe the rules it is useful to have a notion for inserting points, ascents, and descents into a mesh pattern.

Definition 3.1. Let $p = (\tau, R)$ be a mesh pattern of length n such that $[i, j] \notin R$. We define a mesh pattern $p^{[i, j]} = (\tau', R')$ of length $n + 1$ as the pattern where a point is *inserted* into the box $[i, j]$ in $G(p)$. Formally the new underlying classical pattern is defined by

$$\tau'(k) = \begin{cases} j + 1 & \text{if } k = i + 1 \\ \tau(k) & \text{if } \tau(k) \leq j \text{ and } k \leq i \\ \tau(k) + 1 & \text{if } \tau(k) > j \text{ and } k \leq i \\ \tau(k - 1) & \text{if } \tau(k) \leq j \text{ and } k > i + 1 \\ \tau(k - 1) + 1 & \text{if } \tau(k) > j \text{ and } k > i + 1 \end{cases}$$

While the mesh becomes

$$\begin{aligned} R' = & \{[k, \ell] \mid k \leq i, \ell \leq j, [k, \ell] \in R\} \cup \\ & \{[k, \ell] \mid k \leq i, \ell > j, [k, \ell - 1] \in R\} \cup \\ & \{[k, \ell] \mid k > i, \ell \leq j, [k - 1, \ell] \in R\} \cup \\ & \{[k, \ell] \mid k > i, \ell > j, [k - 1, \ell - 1] \in R\} \end{aligned}$$

FIGURE 3. The result of inserting a point into $p = (12, \{(0, 1), (2, 2)\})$

In addition, we give the following definitions:

Definition 3.2. Let $p = (\tau, R)$ be a mesh pattern of length n such that $[i, j] \notin R$ and $p^{[i, j]} = (\tau', R')$ to be as defined in Definition 3.1. We define the following five modifications of the mesh patterns of the same length as $p^{[i, j]}$.

$$\begin{aligned} p^{[i, j]^{\uparrow}} &= (\tau', R' \cup \{[i, j+1], [i+1, j+1]\}) \\ p^{[i, j]^{\rightarrow}} &= (\tau', R' \cup \{[i+1, j], [i+1, j+1]\}) \\ p^{[i, j]^{\downarrow}} &= (\tau', R' \cup \{[i, j], [i+1, j]\}) \\ p^{[i, j]^{\leftarrow}} &= (\tau', R' \cup \{[i, j], [i, j+1]\}) \end{aligned}$$

Informally, these are considering the topmost, rightmost, leftmost, or bottommost point in $[i, j]$. We allow composition of these modifications, and collect the resulting mesh patterns in a set

$$p^{[i, j]^{\star}} = \left\{ p^{[i, j]}, p^{[i, j]^{\rightarrow}}, p^{[i, j]^{\leftarrow}}, p^{[i, j]^{\uparrow}}, p^{[i, j]^{\downarrow}} \right\}$$

See Figure 3 for an example of adding a point into a mesh pattern.

Definition 3.3. Let $p = (\tau, R)$ be a mesh pattern of length n such that $[i, j] \notin R$. We define a mesh pattern $p^{[i, j]^{\star}} = (\tau', R')$ ($p^{[i, j]^{\star}}$) of length $n+2$ as the pattern where an ascent (descent) is *inserted* into the box $[i, j]$ in $G(p)$. Formally the new underlying classical pattern is defined by

$$\tau'(k) = \begin{cases} j+t & \text{if } k = i+t, t \in \{1, 2\} \\ \tau(k) & \text{if } \tau(k) \leq j \text{ and } k \leq i \\ \tau(k) + 2 & \text{if } \tau(k) > j \text{ and } k \leq i \\ \tau(k) - 2 & \text{if } \tau(k) \leq j \text{ and } k > i+2 \\ \tau(k) - 2 + 2 & \text{if } \tau(k) > j \text{ and } k > i+2 \end{cases}$$

The ordering of the top branch determines whether an ascent(or descent) is added. The mesh becomes

$$\begin{aligned} R' = & \{[k, \ell] \mid k \leq i, \ell \leq j, [k, \ell] \in R\} \cup \\ & \{[k, \ell] \mid k \leq i, \ell > j, [k, \ell-2] \in R\} \cup \\ & \{[k, \ell] \mid k > i, \ell \leq j, [k-2, \ell] \in R\} \cup \\ & \{[k, \ell] \mid k > i, \ell > j, [k-2, \ell-2] \in R\} \cup \\ & \{[i, j+1], [i+1, j], [i+1, j+1], [i+1, j+2], [i+2, j+1]\} \end{aligned}$$

An example of adding an ascent to a mesh pattern can be seen in Figure 4.

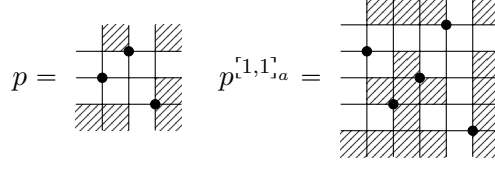


FIGURE 4. The result of inserting an ascent into $p = (231, \{(0,0), (1,0), (1,3), (3,0), (3,1), (3,3)\})$

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, that is finding and explaining all coincidences where $\text{Av}(\{p, m\}) = \text{Av}(\{p, m'\})$.

It can be easily seen that in order to classify coincidences one need only consider coincidences within the family of mesh patterns with the same underlying classical pattern, this is due to the fact that $21 \in \text{Av}((12, R))$ and $12 \in \text{Av}((21, R))$ for all mesh-sets R .

We know that there are a total of 512 mesh-sets for each underlying classical pattern. By use of the previous results of Claesson, Tenner, and Ulfarsson [7]¹ the number of coincidence classes can be reduced to 220.

3.1. Coincidence classes of $\text{Av}(\{321, (21, R)\})$. Through experimentation, considering avoidance of permutations of up to length 11, we discover that there are at least 29 coincidence classes of mesh patterns with underlying classical pattern 21.

Proposition 3.4 (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 $\text{Av}(\{\pi, m_1\})$ and $\text{Av}(\{\pi, m_2\})$ are coincident if

- (1) $R_1 \triangle R_2 = \{(a, b)\}$
- (2) $\pi \leq \sigma^{[a, b]}$

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

Note 3.5. Let $R' \subseteq R$. Then any occurrence of (τ, R) in a permutation is an occurrence of (τ, R') .

Proof of Proposition 3.4. We need to prove that $\text{Av}(\{\pi, m_1\}) = \text{Av}(\{\pi, m_2\})$. Assume without meaningful loss of generality that $R_2 = R_1 \cup \{(a, b)\}$. Since R_1 is a subset of R_2 , Note 3.5 states that $\text{Av}(\{\pi, m_1\}) \subseteq \text{Av}(\{\pi, m_2\})$

Now we consider a permutation $\omega' \in \text{Av}(\pi)$, containing 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 $\text{Av}(\{\pi, m_2\}) \subseteq \text{Av}(\{\pi, m_1\})$.

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

¹ The authors use the Simultaneous Shading Lemma, a closure result and one worked out special case.

4. WILF EQUIVALENCES BETWEEN EQUIVALENCE CLASSES

Wilf-equivalence is an important aspect to study in the field of permutation patterns. If 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 4.1. (Wilf Equivalence.) Two patterns π and σ are said to be *Wilf-equivalent* if for all $k \geq 0$, $|\text{Av}_k(\pi)| = |\text{Av}_k(\sigma)|$. Two sets of permutation patterns R and S are *Wilf-equivalent* if for all $k \geq 0$, $|\text{Av}_k(R)| = |\text{Av}_k(S)|$.

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

Coincident patterns are trivially Wilf-equivalent, if $\text{Av}_k(R) = \text{Av}_k(S)$ then trivially $|\text{Av}_k(R)| = |\text{Av}_k(S)|$. Coincidence is therefore a stronger equivalence condition than Wilf-equivalence.

When examining Wilf-equivalences we can use a number of symmetries to reduce the amount of work required. It can be seen that the reverse, complement and inverse operations (see Figure 5) preserve enumeration, and therefore these classes are trivially Wilf-equivalent.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{reverse} \left(\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \end{array} \right) &= \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \text{complement} \left(\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \end{array} \right) &= \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \text{inverse} \left(\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \end{array} \right) &= \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \bullet & \bullet & \bullet \\ \hline \end{array} \end{aligned}$$

FIGURE 5. The operations reverse, complement and inverse for the pattern 231

Since we are always considering Wilf-equivalences in the set $\text{Av}(S)$ we must only use these symmetries when they preserve the dominating pattern, if we were to allow other symmetries, then the equivalences calculated in the previous section do not necessarily hold.

Throughout this section we will consider Wilf-equivalences of patterns whilst avoiding the *dominating pattern* 231. We will use \mathcal{C} to denote $\text{Av}(231)$ and $C(x)$ will be the usual Catalan generating function satisfying $C(x) = 1 + xC(x)^2$. This is easy to see by structural decomposition around the maximum, as shown in Figure 6.

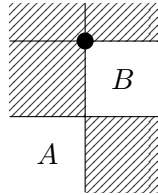


FIGURE 6. Structural decomposition of a non-empty avoider of 231

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 call A the *lower-left section* and B the *upper-right section*.

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

4.1. Wilf-classes with mesh 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 $\text{Av}(231)$, this means that we are considering the set $\text{Av}(231, p)$ where p is a mesh-pattern of length 1.

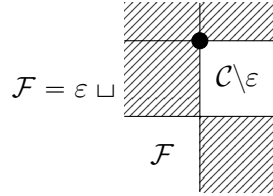
The patterns in the following set are coincident,

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{+}, \text{+}, \text{+}, \text{+}, \text{+}, \\ \text{+}, \text{+}, \text{+}, \text{+}, \text{+} \end{array} \right\}$$

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 pattern $p = \text{+}$ is one of the quadrant marked mesh patterns studied by Kitaev, Remmel, and Tiefenbruck [9]. Alternatively we can enumerate avoiders of p by decomposing a non-empty avoider of p around the maximum element in order to give the following structural decomposition.



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 , so we can use any avoider of 231. The lower-left section however can create occurrences of p and therefore must also avoid p , 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

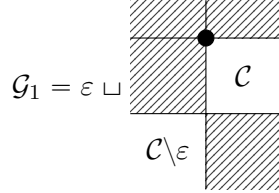
$$F(x) = \frac{1}{1 + x - xC(x)}$$

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

Calculating coefficients given by this generating function gives the Fine numbers.

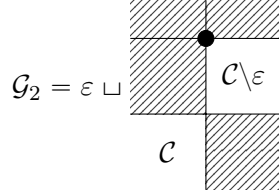
(OEIS: A000957) $1, 0, 1, 2, 6, 18, 57, 186, 622, 2120, 7338, \dots$

It can be shown by use of Proposition ?? that the patterns \nearrow and $q_1 = \nwarrow$ are coincident. Consider the decomposition of a non-empty avoider of q_1 in $\text{Av}(231)$ around the maximum:

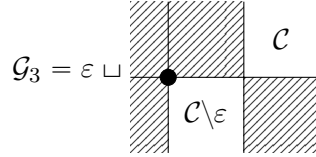


This can be explained succinctly by the fact that a permutation containing q_1 starts with it's maximum, by not allowing the lower-left section of the 231 avoider to be empty we prevent an occurrence from ever happening.

Consider $q_2 = \nwarrow$, avoiding this pattern means that a permutation does not end with it's maximum. We can perform a similar decomposition as before to get



Now consider $q_3 = \nwarrow$, 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



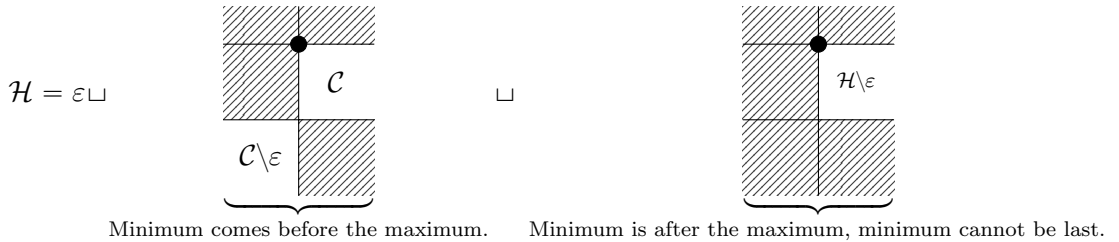
All of these classes have the same generating function, namely

$$(4.1) \quad G(x) = 1 + xC(x)(C(x) - 1).$$

The coefficients of this generating function are

(OEIS: A000245 with offset 1) 1, 0, 1, 3, 9, 28, 90, 297, 1001, 3432, 11934, ...

There is one pattern of length 1 still to consider. The pattern $r = \nwarrow$ 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 r must fit into precisely one of the following two forms.



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

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

Computing coefficients of this generating function gives

(OEIS: A141364) $1, 0, 1, 4, 13, 41, 131, 428, 1429, 4861, 16795, \dots$


5. WILF-CLASSES WITH PATTERNS OF LENGTH 2

By the use of set equivalences established in Section 3 we know that there are at most 95 Wilf-equivalence classes.

The only symmetry that we are able to consider is *reverse-complement-inverse* as this is the only symmetry that preserves the 231 pattern. Using this symmetry we can find 61 classes of trivial Wilf-equivalence, these equivalences being explained by either the patterns being coincident in $\text{Av}(231)$, or by one pattern being the reverse-complement-inverse of some other pattern.

Computing avoiders up to length 10 suggests that there are at least 23 Wilf-classes, of which 13 are non-trivial, therefore there are Wilf-equivalences that are not explained by coincidences or symmetry.

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

Note 5.1. The avoiders of the pattern $q = (231, (1, 0), (1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3))$,  in \mathfrak{S}_n are in one-to-one correspondence with partitions of $\llbracket n \rrbracket$ (Claesson [5, Prop. 2])

We will call the least element in each block the *block-bottom*, and note that all permutations in $\text{Av}(231)$ also avoid this mesh pattern.

We will use two main methods of establishing Wilf-equivalence between mesh patterns of length 2 in $\text{Av}(231)$: the structural decomposition of avoiders, via generating functions; or the structure of the set-partition induced by the pattern, looking at a particular occurrence of the pattern in a permutation avoiding 231. Sometimes it will be necessary to use both of these methods to consolidate a single Wilf-class.

5.1. The following patterns are experimentally Wilf-equivalent up to length 10 in $\text{Av}(231)$

$$(5.1) \quad m_1 = \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline \text{shaded} & \bullet \\ \hline \bullet & \text{shaded} \\ \hline \end{array}, m_2 = \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline \bullet & \text{shaded} \\ \hline \text{shaded} & \bullet \\ \hline \end{array},$$

$$(5.2) \quad m_3 = \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline \bullet & \text{shaded} \\ \hline \text{shaded} & \bullet \\ \hline \end{array}, \text{ and } m_4 = \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline \text{shaded} & \bullet \\ \hline \bullet & \text{shaded} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

First we prove the Wilf-equivalence between m_1 and m_2 shown in (5.1). The easiest way to show that these are equinumerous is to consider the containers as set partitions.

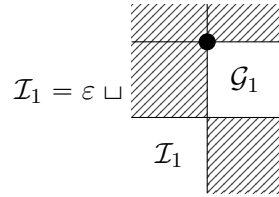
Considering an occurrence of either of these patterns in a permutation we know the following about the points corresponding to the points in the patterns.

- The point corresponding to the first point in both patterns must lie in the first block of the 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).
- If the region corresponding to box $(2, 2)$ in an occurrence of m_1 is empty, then the point corresponding to the second point is precisely the last block bottom. If the region corresponding to box $(0, 1)$ in an occurrence of m_2 is empty, then the point corresponding to the second point is precisely the first block bottom. If these regions are non-empty then the block containing the point corresponding to the second point in both patterns contains only the point (it is a singleton block).

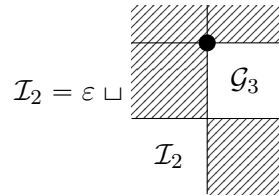
This tells us that an occurrence of the patterns must happen when there is a singleton block occurring after the first block. The difference between the patterns is in the underlying classical pattern. This means that permutations containing m_1 correspond to set partitions with a singleton block with 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. This proves that the containers of both of these patterns in $\text{Av}(231)$ are equinumerous, and therefore so are their avoiders.

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



Only the first point in the top right region can create an occurrence of m_3 if and only if it is the element with largest value in this region, therefore the partial permutation in this region must avoid starting with the maximum.

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



Any occurrence of m_4 can never occur in the top right region. It could only occur between the maximum and the first point in the region, if and only if this first point is the lowest valued element in this region. Since both G_1 and G_3 have the same enumeration, I_1 and 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 have the following

$$\mathcal{I}_3 = \varepsilon \sqcup \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline \text{shaded} & \text{shaded} \\ \hline \bullet & \mathcal{G}_3 \\ \hline \text{shaded} & \mathcal{I}_3 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

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 $\text{Av}(231)$ with generating function satisfying

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

Where $G(x)$ is the generating function given in equation (4.1). This can be enumerated to give the sequence

(OEIS: A035929 offset 1) $1, 1, 1, 2, 6, 19, 61, 200, 670, 2286, 7918, \dots$

This particular example is interesting as it shows that both methods can be used in tandem to establish a coincidence class.

5.2. The following patterns are experimentally Wilf-equivalent up to length 10 in $\text{Av}(231)$

$$m_1 = \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline \text{shaded} & \text{shaded} \\ \hline \text{shaded} & \bullet \\ \hline \text{shaded} & \bullet \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \text{and} \quad m_2 = \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline \text{shaded} & \bullet \\ \hline \text{shaded} & \text{shaded} \\ \hline \text{shaded} & \bullet \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Let \mathcal{J}_1 be the set of avoiders of m_1 in $\text{Av}(231)$. By structural decomposition around the leftmost point we have

$$\mathcal{J}_1 = \varepsilon \sqcup \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline \text{shaded} & \text{shaded} \\ \hline \bullet & \mathcal{J}'_1 \\ \hline \text{shaded} & \mathcal{J}_1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

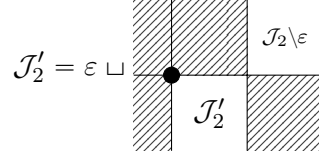
Where \mathcal{J}'_1 is a permutation avoiding $231, m_1$ and $\begin{smallmatrix} \diagup & \diagdown \\ \diagdown & \diagup \end{smallmatrix}$. Now consider the decomposition of a permutation in \mathcal{J}'_1 . It can once again be decomposed around the leftmost point

$$\mathcal{J}'_1 = \varepsilon \sqcup \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline \text{shaded} & \text{shaded} \\ \hline \bullet & \mathcal{J}'_1 \\ \hline \text{shaded} & \mathcal{J}_1 \setminus \varepsilon \\ \hline \end{array}$$

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

$$\mathcal{J}_2 = \varepsilon \sqcup \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline \text{shaded} & \text{shaded} \\ \hline \bullet & \mathcal{J}_2 \\ \hline \text{shaded} & \mathcal{J}'_2 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Where \mathcal{J}'_2 is a permutation avoiding $231, m_2$ and $\begin{smallmatrix} \diagup & \diagdown \\ \diagdown & \diagup \end{smallmatrix}$. Again we use the same method of decomposition of a permutation in \mathcal{J}'_2



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

$$(5.3) \quad J(x) = 1 + xJ(x)J'(x)$$

$$(5.4) \quad J'(x) = 1 + x(J(x) - 1)J'(x)$$

Solving equation (5.4) for $J'(x)$ and substituting into equation (5.3) gives us that the generating function for $J(x)$ satisfies

$$(5.5) \quad J(x) = xJ^2(x) - x(J(x) - 1) + 1$$

Evaluating $J(x)$ gives us the sequence

(OEIS: A001006 with offset 1) $1, 1, 1, 2, 4, 9, 21, 51, 127, 323, 835, \dots$

This is an offset of the Motzkin numbers.

In order to establish the remainder of the Wilf-equivalences of the form $\text{Av}(231, p)$ where p is a mesh pattern we can use similar methods to allow us to consolidate experimental classes into actual classes.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

If we consider a similar system for dominating patterns of length 4 and mesh patterns of length 2, it can be seen that the number of cases required to establish rules increases to a number that is infeasible to compute manually. For an extension of the First Dominating rule alone, we would have to consider placement of points in any pair of unshaded regions. The fact that the rules established do not completely cover the coincidences with a dominating pattern of length 3 shows that this is a difficult task.

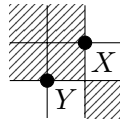
It is interesting to consider the application of the Third Dominating rule, as well as the simple extension of allowing a sequence of point insertions, to mesh patterns without any dominating pattern in order to try to capture some of the coincidences described in Hilmarsson, Jónsdóttir, Sigurðardóttir, *et al.* [8] and Claesson, Tenner, and Ulfarsson [7].

Example 6.1. We can establish the coincidence between the patterns

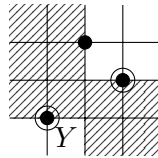
$$m_1 = \begin{smallmatrix} \diagup & \diagdown \\ \diagdown & \diagup \end{smallmatrix}, \text{ and } m_2 = \begin{smallmatrix} \diagup & \diagdown \\ \diagdown & \diagup \end{smallmatrix}$$

That is not explained by the methods presented by Claesson, Tenner, and Ulfarsson [7].

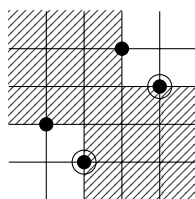
Consider a permutation containing m_1 ,



If the regions corresponding to both X and Y are empty then we have an occurrence of m_2 . Consider if the region corresponding to X is non-empty, we can then choose the lowest valued point in this region



If the region corresponding to Y is empty then we have an occurrence of m_2 with the indicated points. Now if the region corresponding to Y is non-empty, we can choose the rightmost point in this region.



And now the two indicated points form an occurrence of m_2 . We have therefore shown that any occurrence of m_1 is an occurrence of m_2 and we can easily show the converse by the same reasoning, so m_1 and m_2 are coincident. This is captured by an extension of the Third Dominating rule where we allow multiple steps of adding points before we check for subpattern containment.

It would be interesting to consider a systematic explanation of Wilf-equivalences among classes where 231 is the dominating pattern, possibly using the construction presented in [2, Sec. 12], in order to directly reach enumeration and hopefully establish some of the non-trivial Wilf-equivalences between classes with different dominating patterns.

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