PARTITION AND COMPOSITION MATRICES

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ABSTRACT. This paper introduces two matrix analogues for set partitions. A composition matrix on a finite set X is an upper triangular matrix whose entries partition X, and for which there are no rows or columns containing only empty sets. A partition matrix is a composition matrix in which an order is placed on where entries may appear relative to one-another.

We show that partition matrices are in one-to-one correspondence with inversion tables. Non-decreasing inversion tables are shown to correspond to partition matrices with a row ordering relation. Partition matrices which are *s*-diagonal are classified in terms of inversion tables. Bidiagonal partition matrices are enumerated using the transfer-matrix method and are equinumerous with permutations which are sortable by two pop-stacks in parallel.

We show that composition matrices on X are in one-to-one correspondence with (2 + 2)-free posets on X. Also, composition matrices whose rows satisfy a column-ordering relation are shown to be in one-to-one correspondence with parking functions. Finally, we show that pairs of ascent sequences and permutations are in one-to-one correspondence with (2 + 2)-free posets whose elements are the cycles of a permutation, and use this relation to give an expression for the number of (2 + 2)-free posets on $\{1, \ldots, n\}$.

1. INTRODUCTION

We present two matrix analogues for set partitions that are intimately related to both permutations and (2+2)-free posets.

Example 1. Here is an instance of what we shall call a partition matrix:

	$\{1, 2, 3\}$	Ø	$\{5, 7, 8\}$	$\{9\}$	1
A =	Ø	$\{4\}$	$\{6\}$	$\{11\}$	
	Ø	Ø	Ø	$\{13\}$	·
	Ø	Ø	Ø	$\{10, 12\}$	

Definition 2. Let X be a finite subset of $\{1, 2, ...\}$. A *partition matrix* on X is an upper triangular matrix over the powerset of X satisfying the following properties:

- (i) each column and row contain at least one non-empty set;
- (ii) the non-empty sets partition X;
- (iii) $\operatorname{col}(i) < \operatorname{col}(j) \implies i < j$,

where col(i) denotes the column in which *i* is a member. Let Par_n be the collection of all partition matrices on $[1, n] = \{1, ..., n\}$.

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For instance,

$$\begin{aligned} &\operatorname{Par}_{1} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \{1\} \end{bmatrix} \right\}; \\ &\operatorname{Par}_{2} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \{1,2\} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \{1\} & \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \{2\} \end{bmatrix} \right\}; \\ &\operatorname{Par}_{3} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \{1,2,3\} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \{1,2\} & \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \{3\} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \{1\} & \{2\} \\ \emptyset & \{3\} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \{1\} & \{3\} \\ \emptyset & \{2\} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \{1\} & \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \{2\} \\ \emptyset & \emptyset & \{3\} \end{bmatrix} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

In Section 2 we present a bijection between Par_n and the set of *inversion tables*

$$\mathcal{I}_n = [0,0] \times [0,1] \times \dots \times [0,n-1], \text{ where } [a,b] = \{i \in \mathbb{Z} : a \le i \le b\}.$$

Non-decreasing inversion tables are shown to correspond to partition matrices with a row ordering relation. Partition matrices which are s-diagonal are classified in terms of inversion tables. Bidiagonal partition matrices are enumerated using the transfer-matrix method and are equinumerous with permutations which are sortable by two pop-stacks in parallel.

In Section 3 we show that composition matrices on X are in one-to-one correspondence with (2 + 2)-free posets on X. We also show that composition matrices whose rows satisfy a column-ordering relation are in one-to-one correspondence with parking functions.

Finally, in Section 4 we show that pairs of ascent sequences and permutations are in one-to-one correspondence with (2 + 2)-free posets whose elements are the cycles of a permutation, and use this relation to give an expression for the number of (2 + 2)-free posets on [1, n].

Taking the entry-wise cardinality of the matrices in Par_n one gets the matrices of Dukes and Parviainen [5]. In that sense, we generalize the paper of Dukes and Parviainen in a similar way as Claesson and Linusson [4] generalized the paper of Bousquet-Mélou et al. [2]. We note, however, that if we restrict our attention to those inversion tables that enjoy the property of being an *ascent sequence*, then we do *not* recover the bijection of Dukes and Parviainen.

2. PARTITION MATRICES AND INVERSION TABLES

For w a sequence let Alph(w) denote the set of distinct entries in w. In other words, if we think of w as a word, then Alph(w) is the (smallest) alphabet on which w is written. Also, let us write $\{a_1, \ldots, a_k\}_{\leq}$ for a set whose elements are listed in increasing order, $a_1 < \cdots < a_k$. Given an inversion table $w = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathcal{I}_n$ with $Alph(w) = \{y_1, \ldots, y_k\}_{\leq}$ define the $k \times k$ matrix $A = \Lambda(w) \in Par_n$ by

$$A_{ij} = \{ \ell : x_{\ell} = y_i \text{ and } y_j < \ell \le y_{j+1} \},\$$

where we let $y_{k+1} = n$. For example, with

$$w = (0, 0, 0, 3, 0, 3, 0, 0, 0, 8, 3, 8) \in \mathcal{I}_{12}$$

we have $Alph(w) = \{0, 3, 8\}$ and

$$\Lambda(w) = \begin{bmatrix} \{1, 2, 3\} & \{5, 7, 8\} & \{9\} \\ \emptyset & \{4, 6\} & \{11\} \\ \emptyset & \emptyset & \{10, 12\} \end{bmatrix} \in \operatorname{Par}_{12}.$$

We now define a map $K : \operatorname{Par}_n \to \mathcal{I}_n$. Given $A \in \operatorname{Par}_n$, for $\ell \in [1, n]$ let $x_{\ell} = \min(A_{*i}) - 1$ where *i* is the row containing ℓ and $\min(A_{*i})$ is the smallest

entry in column i of A. Define

$$K(A) = (x_1, \ldots, x_n).$$

Theorem 3. The map $\Lambda : \mathcal{I}_n \to \operatorname{Par}_n$ is a bijection and K is its inverse.

Proof. It suffices to show the following four statements:

- (1) $\Lambda(\mathcal{I}_n) \subseteq \operatorname{Par}_n;$
- (2) $K(\operatorname{Par}_n) \subseteq \mathcal{I}_n;$
- (3) $K(\Lambda(w)) = w$ for all w in \mathcal{I}_n ;
- (4) $\Lambda(K(A)) = A$ for all A in Par_n .

Proof of (1): Assume that $w = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathcal{I}_n$ with $Alph(w) = \{y_1, \ldots, y_k\}_{<}$, and let $A = \Lambda(w)$. We first need to see that A is upper triangular. Let i > j and consider the entry A_{ij} . Assume that $x_{\ell} = y_i$. Since $w \in \mathcal{I}_n$ we have $\ell > x_{\ell}$ and thus $\ell > y_i$. Since $y_1 < \cdots < y_k$ and $i \ge j + 1$ we have $\ell > y_i \ge y_{j+1}$. Thus $A_{ij} = \emptyset$ if i > j; that is, A is upper triangular.

Denote by A_{i*} and A_{*j} the union of the sets in the *i*th row and the *j*th column of A, respectively. By definition, we have $A_{i*} = \{\ell : x_\ell = y_i\}$ and $A_{*j} = [y_j + 1, y_{j+1}]$ and clearly both sets are non-empty. Thus A satisfies condition (i) of Definition 2. To show (ii), it suffices to note that the entries A_{i*} form a partition of [1, n], and so do the entries A_{*j} . To show (iii), let $u, v \in [1, n]$ with $\operatorname{col}(u) < \operatorname{col}(v)$. Also, let $p = \operatorname{col}(u)$ and $q = \operatorname{col}(v)$. Then $u \leq y_{p+1}$ and $y_q < v$. Since $p + 1 \leq q$ and the numbers y_i are increasing, it follows that $u \leq y_{p+1} \leq y_q < v$.

Proof of (2): Given $A \in \operatorname{Par}_n$ choose any $\ell \in [1, n]$. Suppose that ℓ is in row *i* of A and let $a = \min(A_{*i})$ be the smallest entry in column *i* of A. If $\operatorname{col}(a) = \operatorname{col}(\ell)$ then $a \leq \ell$, and so $x_{\ell} = a - 1 \leq \ell - 1$. Otherwise, $\operatorname{col}(a) < \operatorname{col}(\ell)$ and so, from condition (iii) of Definition 2, we have $a < \ell$. Thus $x_{\ell} < \ell - 1$.

Proof of (3): Let $w = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathcal{I}_n$, Alph $(w) = \{y_1, \ldots, y_k\}_{<}$, $A = \Lambda(w)$ and $K(A) = (z_1, \ldots, z_m)$. From the definitions of Λ and K it is clear that n = m. Suppose that $\ell \in [1, n]$ is in row i of A; then $x_{\ell} = y_i$. Also, by the definition of Λ , the smallest entry in column i of A is $y_i + 1$. From the definition of K we have $z_{\ell} = (y_i + 1) - 1 = y_i = x_{\ell}$. So $x_{\ell} = z_{\ell}$ for all $\ell \in [1, n]$, and hence w = z = K(A).

Proof of (4): Let $A \in \operatorname{Par}_n$, $K(A) = w = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$, $\operatorname{Alph}(w) = \{y_1, \ldots, y_k\}_{\leq}$ and $P = \Lambda(w)$. Also, define $z_j = \min(A_{*j}) - 1$. Then, for $\ell \in [1, n]$, we have

$$\ell \in A_{ij} \iff x_{\ell} = z_i \text{ and } \ell \in [z_j + 1, z_{j+1}]$$
 (1)

by the definitions of K and z_j . In particular, this means that each x_ℓ equals some z_i and, similarly, each z_i equals some x_ℓ . Hence $Alph(w) = \{z_1, \ldots, z_{\dim(A)}\}_{\leq}$ and it follows that $\dim(A) = k$ and $y_j = z_j$ for all $j \in [1, k]$. So we can restate (1) as

$$\ell \in A_{ij} \iff x_{\ell} = y_i \text{ and } \ell \in [y_j + 1, y_{j+1}].$$

By the definition of Λ , the right hand side is equivalent to $\ell \in P_{ij}$. Thus A = P. \Box

2.1. Statistics on partition matrices and inversion tables. Given $A \in \operatorname{Par}_n$, let $\operatorname{Min}(A) = {\operatorname{min}(A_{*j}) : j \in [1, \operatorname{dim}(A)]}$. For instance, the matrix A in Example 1 has $\operatorname{Min}(A) = {1, 4, 5, 9}$. From the definition of Λ the following proposition is apparent.

Proposition 4. If $w \in \mathcal{I}_n$, $\operatorname{Alph}(w) = \{y_1, \ldots, y_k\}_<$ and $A = \Lambda(w)$, then $\operatorname{Min}(A) = \{y_1 + 1, \ldots, y_k + 1\}$ and $\operatorname{dim}(A) = |\operatorname{Alph}(w)|.$ **Corollary 5.** The statistic dim on Par_n is Eulerian.

Proof. The statistic "number of distinct entries in the inversion table" is Eulerian; that is, it has the same distribution on \mathfrak{S}_n (the symmetric group) as the number of descents. For a proof due to Deutsch see [4, Corollary 19].

Let us say that *i* is a special descent of $w = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathcal{I}_n$ if $x_i > x_{i+1}$ and *i* does not occur in *w*. Let sdes(w) denote the number of special descents of *w*, so

$$sdes(w) = |\{i : x_i > x_{i+1} \text{ and } x_{\ell} \neq i \text{ for all } \ell \in [1, n] \}|.$$

Claesson and Linusson [4] conjectured that sdes has the same distribution on \mathcal{I}_n as the so-called bivincular pattern $p = (231, \{1\}, \{1\})$ has on \mathfrak{S}_n . An occurrence of pin a permutation $\pi = a_1 \dots a_n$ is a subword $a_i a_{i+1} a_j$ such that $a_{i+1} > a_i = a_j + 1$. We shall define a statistic on partition matrices that is equidistributed with sdes. Given $A \in \operatorname{Par}_n$ let us say that i is a *column descent* if i + 1 is in the same column as, and above, i in A. Let $\operatorname{cdes}(A)$ denote the number of column descents in A, so

$$cdes(A) = |\{i : row(i) > row(i+1) \text{ and } col(i) = col(i+1)\}|.$$

Proposition 6. The special descents of $w \in \mathcal{I}_n$ equal the column descents of $\Lambda(w)$.

Proof. Given $t \in [1, n - 1]$, let $u = \operatorname{row}(t + 1)$ and $v = \operatorname{row}(t)$. As before, let $w = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ and $\operatorname{Alph}(w) = \{y_1, \ldots, y_k\}_{<}$. By the definition of Λ we have $x_{t+1} = y_u$ and $x_t = y_v$. So, since the numbers y_i are increasing, we have

$$\operatorname{row}(t+1) < \operatorname{row}(t) \iff u < v \iff y_u < y_v \iff x_{t+1} < x_t.$$

Now, let u = col(t+1) and v = col(t). Then

$$col(t+1) = col(t) \iff t+1 \in [y_u+1, y_{u+1}] \text{ and } t \in [y_v+1, y_{v+1}]$$
$$\iff y_u+1 \le t \le y_{v+1}-1$$
$$\iff x_j \ne t \text{ for all } j \in [1, n],$$

which concludes the proof.

Corollary 7. The statistic sdes on \mathcal{I}_n has the same distribution as cdes on Par_n .

2.2. Non-decreasing inversion tables and partition matrices. Let us write $Mono_n$ for the collection of matrices in Par_n which satisfy

(iv) $\operatorname{row}(i) < \operatorname{row}(j) \implies i < j$,

where row(i) denotes the row in which *i* is a member. We say that an inversion table (x_1, \ldots, x_n) is *non-decreasing* if $x_i \leq x_{i+1}$ for all $1 \leq i < n$.

Theorem 8. Under the map Λ : $\operatorname{Par}_n \to \mathcal{I}_n$, matrices in Mono_n correspond to non-decreasing inversion tables.

Proof. Let $w = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathcal{I}_n$ and $Alph(w) = \{y_1, \ldots, y_k\}_{\leq}$. Looking at the definition of Λ , we see that ℓ is in row i of $\Lambda(w)$ if and only if $x_{\ell} = y_i$. Since the numbers y_i are increasing it follows that condition (iv) holds if and only if w is non-decreasing, as claimed.

Proposition 9. $|Mono_n| = \binom{2n}{n}/(n+1)$, the nth Catalan number.

Proof. Consider the set of lattice paths in the plane from (0,0) to (n,n) which take steps in the set $\{(1,0), (0,1)\}$ and never go above the diagonal line y = x. Such paths are commonly known as *Dyck paths*, and they can be encoded as a sequence (x_1, \ldots, x_n) where x_i is the *y*-coordinate of the *i*th horizontal step (1,0). The restriction on such a sequence, for it to be Dyck path, is precisely that it is a non-decreasing inversion table. The number of Dyck paths from (0,0) to (n,n) is given by the *n*th Catalan number.

We want to remark that a matrix $A \in Mono_n$ is completely determined by the cardinalities of its entries. Thus, we can identify A with an upper triangular matrix that contains non-negative entries which sum to n and such that there is at least one non-zero entry in each row and column. Also, the number of such matrices with k rows is equal to the Narayana number

$$\frac{1}{k} \binom{n}{k} \binom{n}{k-1}.$$

2.3. s-diagonal partition matrices. A $k \times k$ matrix A is called s-diagonal if A is upper triangular and $A_{ij} = \emptyset$ for $j - i \ge s$. For s = 1 we get the collection of diagonal matrices.

Theorem 10. Let $w = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathcal{I}_n$, $A = \Lambda(w)$ and $Alph(w) = \{y_1, \ldots, y_k\}_{<}$. Define $y_{k+1} = n$. The matrix A is s-diagonal if and only if for every $i \in [1, n]$ there exists an $a(i) \in [1, k]$ such that

$$y_{a(i)} < i \le y_{a(i)+1}$$
 and $x_i \in \{y_{a(i)}, y_{a(i)-1}, \dots, y_{\max(1,a(i)-s+1)}\}.$

Proof. From the definition of Λ we have that i is in row a - j of A precisely when $x_i = y_{a-j}$, and that i is in column a of A precisely when $y_a < i \leq y_{a+1}$. The matrix A is s-diagonal if for every entry i, there exists a(i) such that i is in column a(i) and row a(i) - j for some $0 \leq j < s$.

Setting s = 1 in the above theorem gives us the class of diagonal matrices. These admit a more explicit description which we will now present.

In computer science, run-length encoding is a simple form of data compression in which consecutive data elements (runs) are stored as a single data element and its multiplicity. We shall apply this to inversion tables, but for convenience rather than compression purposes. Let RLE(w) denote the run-length encoding of the inversion table w. For example,

RLE(0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 2, 3, 3) = (0, 4)(1, 2)(0, 1)(2, 1)(3, 2).

A sequence of positive integers (u_1, \ldots, u_k) which sum to n is called an *integer* composition of n and we write this as $(u_1, \ldots, u_k) \models n$.

Corollary 11. The set of diagonal matrices in Par_n is the image under Λ of

 $\{ w \in \mathcal{I}_n : (u_1, \dots, u_k) \models n \text{ and } \operatorname{RLE}(w) = (p_0, u_1) \dots (p_{k-1}, u_k) \},\$

where $p_0 = 0$, $p_1 = u_1$, $p_2 = u_1 + u_2$, $p_3 = u_1 + u_2 + u_3$, etc.

Since diagonal matrices are in bijection with integer compositions, the number of diagonal matrices in Par_n is 2^{n-1} . Although the bidiagonal matrices do not admit as compact a description in terms of the corresponding inversion tables, we can

still count them using the so-called transfer-matrix method [10, §4.7]. Consider the matrix

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} \{1, 2\} & \{3\} & \emptyset & \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \emptyset & \{5\} & \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \emptyset & \{4, 6\} & \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \emptyset & \emptyset & \{7\} \end{bmatrix}.$$

More specifically consider creating B by starting with the empty matrix, ϵ , and inserting the elements 1, ..., 7 one at a time:

$$\begin{split} \epsilon &\to \lfloor \{1\} \rfloor \\ &\to \lfloor \{1,2\} \rfloor \to \begin{bmatrix} \{1,2\} \ \{3\} \ \emptyset \end{bmatrix} \to \begin{bmatrix} \{1,2\} \ \{3\} \ \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \emptyset & \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \emptyset & \{4\} \end{bmatrix} \\ &\to \begin{bmatrix} \{1,2\} \ \{3\} \ \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \emptyset & \{5\} \\ 0 & \emptyset & \{4\} \end{bmatrix} \\ &\to \begin{bmatrix} \{1,2\} \ \{3\} \ \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \emptyset & \{5\} \\ \emptyset & \emptyset & \{4,6\} \end{bmatrix} \to \begin{bmatrix} \{1,2\} \ \{3\} \ \emptyset & \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \emptyset & \{5\} & \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \emptyset & \{4,6\} \end{bmatrix} \end{split}$$

We shall encode (some aspects of) this process like this:

$$\epsilon \to \mathbf{I} \to \mathbf{I$$

Here, • denotes any 1×1 matrix whose only entry is a non-empty set; • denotes any 2×2 matrix whose black entries are non-empty; • denotes any matrix of dimension 3 or more, whose entries in the bottom right corner match the picture, that is, the black entries are non-empty; etc. The sequence of pictures does not, in general, uniquely determine a bidiagonal matrix, but each picture contains enough information to tell what pictures can possibly follow it. The matrix below gives all possible transitions (a q records when a new column, and row, is created):

	ϵ	•			•1									▝▖
ϵ	0	q	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
-	0	1	q	q	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	1	0	1	q	q	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	q	q	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	q	q	0
	0	0	0	0	0	q+1	q	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	q	q	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	q	q	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	q	q+1	1	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	q	q	0
	0	0	0	0	0	q	q	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	q	q	0	0	1	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	q	q	2

We would like to enumerate paths that start with ϵ and end in a configuration with no empty rows or columns. Letting M denote the above transfer-matrix, this amounts to calculating the first coordinate in

$$(1 - xM)^{-1}[11101101001101]^T.$$

Proposition 12. We have

$$\sum_{n \ge 0} \sum_{A \in \operatorname{BiPar}_n} q^{\dim(A)} x^n = \frac{2x^3 - (q+5)x^2 + (q+4)x - 1}{2(q^2 + q + 1)x^3 - (q^2 + 4q + 5)x^2 + 2(q+2)x - 1},$$

where $BiPar_n$ is the collection of bidiagonal matrices in Par_n .

We find it interesting that the number of bidiagonal matrices in Par_n is given by the sequence [8, A164870], which corresponds to permutations of [1, n] which are sortable by two pop-stacks in parallel. In terms of pattern avoidance those are the permutations in the class

$\mathfrak{S}_n(3214, 2143, 24135, 41352, 14352, 13542, 13524).$

See Atkinson and Sack [1]. Moreover, there are exactly 2^{n-1} permutations of [1, n] which are sortable by one pop-stack; hence equinumerous with the diagonal partition matrices. One might then wonder about permutations which are sortable by three pop-stacks in parallel. Are they equinumerous with tridiagonal partition matrices? Computations show that this is not the case: For n = 6 there are 646 tridiagonal partition matrices, but only 644 permutations which are sortable by three pop-stacks in parallel. For more on the enumeration of permutations sortable by pop stacks in parallel see Smith and Vatter [9].

3. Composition matrices and (2+2)-free posets

Consider Definition 2. Define a *composition matrix* to be a matrix that satisfies conditions (i) and (ii), but not necessarily (iii). Let $\text{Comp}_n \supseteq \text{Par}_n$ denote the set of all composition matrices on [1, n]. The smallest example of a composition matrix that is not a partition matrix is

$$\begin{bmatrix} \{2\} & \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \{1\} \end{bmatrix}.$$

In this section we shall give a bijection from Comp_n to the set of (2+2)-free posets on [1, n]. This bijection will factor through a certain union of Cartesian products that we now define. Given a set X, let us write $\binom{X}{x_1,\ldots,x_\ell}$ for the collection of all sequences (X_1, \ldots, X_ℓ) that are ordered set partitions of X and $|X_i| = x_i$ for all $i \in [1, \ell]$. For a sequence (a_1, \ldots, a_i) of numbers let

$$\operatorname{asc}(a_1, \ldots, a_i) = |\{j \in [1, i-1] : a_j < a_{j+1}\}|.$$

Following Bousquet-Mélou et al. [2] we define a sequence of non-negative integers $\alpha = (a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ to be an ascent sequence if $a_1 = 0$ and $a_{i+1} \in [0, 1 + \operatorname{asc}(a_1, \ldots, a_i)]$ for 0 < i < n. Let \mathcal{A}_n be the collection of ascent sequences of length n. Define the run-length record of α to be the sequence that records the multiplicities of adjacent values in α . We denote it by RLR(α). In other words, RLR(α) is the sequence of second coordinates in RLE(α), the run-length encoding of α . For instance,

$$RLR(0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 2, 3, 3) = (4, 2, 1, 1, 2).$$

Finally we are in a position to define the set through which our bijection from Comp_n to (2+2)-free posets on [1, n] will factor. Let

$$\mathfrak{A}_n = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}_n} \{\alpha\} \times \binom{[1,n]}{\operatorname{RLR}(\alpha)}$$

Let \mathcal{M}_n be the collection of upper triangular matrices that contain non-negative integers whose entries sum to n and such that there is no column or row of all zeros. Dukes and Parviainen [5] presented a bijection

$$\Gamma: \mathcal{M}_n \to \mathcal{A}_n.$$

Given $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$, let nz(A) be the number of non-zero entries in A. Since it follows from [5, Thm. 4] that A may be uniquely constructed, in a step-wise fashion, from the ascent sequence $\Gamma(A)$, we may associate to each non-zero entry A_{ij} its time of creation $T_A(i,j) \in [1, nz(A)]$. By defining $T_A(i,j) = 0$ if $A_{ij} = 0$ we may view T_A as a dim $(A) \times \dim(A)$ matrix. Define Seq $(A) = (y_1, \ldots, y_{nz(A)})$ where $y_t = A_{ij}$ and $T_A(i,j) = t$.

Example 13. With

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$T_A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 5 & 8 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

we have

$$\mathrm{Seq}(A) = (3, 1, 2, 1, 3, 1, 1, 1).$$

Lemma 14. Given $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$, we have that $Seq(A) = RLR(\Gamma(A))$.

Proof. This is a straightforward consequence of the construction rules given by Dukes and Parviainen [5]. \Box

For a matrix $A \in \operatorname{Comp}_n$ define $\operatorname{Card}(A)$ as the matrix obtained from A by taking the cardinality of each of its entries. Note that $A \mapsto \operatorname{Card}(A)$ is a surjection from Par_n onto \mathcal{M}_n . Define E(A) as the ordered set partition $(X_1, \ldots, X_{\operatorname{nz}(A)})$, where $X_t = A_{ij}$ for $t = T_{\operatorname{Card}(A)}(i, j)$. Finally, define $f : \operatorname{Comp}_n \to \mathfrak{A}_n$ by

$$f(A) = \big(\Gamma(\operatorname{Card}(A)), E(A) \big).$$

Example 15. Let us calculate f(A) for

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \{3, 8\} & \{6\} & \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \{2, 5, 7\} & \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \emptyset & \{1, 4\} \end{bmatrix}.$$

We have

$$\operatorname{Card}(A) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}; \quad T_{\operatorname{Card}(A)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$f(A) = (\Gamma(\operatorname{Card}(A)), E(A))$$

= ((0,0,1,1,1,0,2,2), {3,8}{2,5,7}{6}{1,4}).

We now define a map $g: \mathfrak{A}_n \to \operatorname{Comp}_n$. For $(w, \chi) \in \mathfrak{A}_n$ with $\chi = (X_1, \ldots, X_k)$ let $g(w, \chi) = A$, where $A_{ij} = X_t$, $t = T_B(i, j)$ and $B = \Gamma^{-1}(w)$. It is easy to verify that $f(\operatorname{Comp}_n) \subseteq \mathfrak{A}_n$, $g(\mathfrak{A}_n) \subseteq \operatorname{Comp}_n$, $g(f(w, \chi)) = (w, \chi)$ for $(w, \chi) \in \mathfrak{A}_n$, and f(g(A)) = A for $A \in \operatorname{Comp}_n$. Thus we have the following theorem.

Theorem 16. The map $f : \text{Comp}_n \to \mathfrak{A}_n$ is a bijection and g is its inverse.

Next we will give a bijection ϕ from \mathfrak{A}_n to \mathfrak{P}_n , the set of (2+2)-free posets on [1, n]. Recall that a poset P is (2+2)-free if it does not contain an induced subposet that is isomorphic to 2+2, the union of two disjoint 2-element chains. Let $(\alpha, \chi) \in \mathfrak{A}_n$ with $\chi = (X_1, \ldots, X_\ell)$. Assuming that $X_i = \{x_1, \ldots, x_k\}_{<}$ define the word $\hat{X}_i = x_1 \ldots x_k$ and let $\hat{\chi} = \hat{X}_1 \ldots \hat{X}_\ell$. From this, $\hat{\chi}$ will be a permutation of the elements [1, n]. Let $\hat{\chi}(i)$ be the *i*th letter of this permutation.

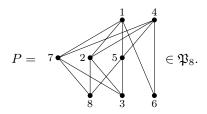
For $(\alpha, \chi) \in \mathfrak{A}_n$ define $\phi(\alpha, \chi)$ as follows: Construct the poset element by element according to the construction rules of [2] on the ascent sequence α . Label with $\hat{\chi}(i)$ the element inserted at step i.

The inverse of this map is also straightforward to state and relies on the following crucial observation [6, Prop. 3] concerning indistinguishable elements in an unlabeled (2+2)-free poset. Two elements in a poset are called *indistinguishable* if they obey the same relations relative to all other elements.

Let P be an unlabeled poset that is constructed from the ascent sequence $\alpha = (a_1, \ldots, a_n)$. Let p_i and p_j be the elements that were created during the *i*th and *j*th steps of the construction given in [2, Sect. 3]. The elements p_i and p_j are indistinguishable in P if and only if $a_i = a_{i+1} = \cdots = a_j$.

Define $\psi : \mathfrak{P}_n \to \mathfrak{A}_n$ as follows: Given $P \in \mathfrak{P}_n$ let $\psi(P) = (\alpha, \chi)$ where α is the ascent sequence that corresponds to the poset P with its labels removed, and χ is the sequence of sets (X_1, \ldots, X_m) where X_i is the set of labels that corresponds to all the indistinguishable elements of P that were added during the *i*th run of identical elements in the ascent sequence.

Example 17. Consider the (2+2)-free poset



The unlabeled poset corresponding to P has ascent sequence (0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 2, 2). There are four runs in this ascent sequence. The first run of two 0s inserts the elements 3 and 8, so we have $X_1 = \{3, 8\}$. Next the run of three 1s inserts elements 2, 5 and 7, so $X_2 = \{2, 5, 7\}$. The next run is a run containing a single 0, and the element inserted is 6, so $X_3 = \{6\}$. The final run of two 2s inserts elements 1 and 4, so $X_4 = \{1, 4\}$. Thus we have

$$\psi(P) = ((0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 2, 2), \{3, 8\}\{2, 5, 7\}\{6\}\{1, 4\}).$$

It is straightforward to check that ϕ and ψ are each others inverses. Consequently, we have the following theorem.

Theorem 18. The map $\phi : \mathfrak{A}_n \to \mathfrak{P}_n$ is a bijection and ψ is its inverse.

Let C_n be the collection of composition matrices M on [1, n] with the following property: in every row of M, the entries are increasing from left to right. An example of a matrix in C_8 is

$$M' = \begin{bmatrix} \{4, 6\} & \{8\} & \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \{1\} & \{7\} \\ \emptyset & \emptyset & \{2, 3, 5\} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Every matrix $M \in \mathcal{C}_n$ may be written as a unique pair $(w(M), \hat{\chi}(M))$ where:

• w(M) is the non-decreasing inversion table that via Theorem 8 corresponds to mono(M), the matrix in Mono_n that is formed from M the following way: replace the entries in M from left to right, beginning with the first row, with the values $1, \ldots, n$, in that order. For the example above we have

$$\operatorname{mono}(M') = \begin{bmatrix} \{1,2\} & \{3\} & \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \{4\} & \{5\} \\ \emptyset & \emptyset & \{6,7,8\} \end{bmatrix} \in \operatorname{Mono}_8$$

and w(M') = (0, 0, 0, 2, 2, 4, 4, 4).

• $\chi(M) = (X_1, \ldots, X_k)$ where X_i is the union of the entries in row *i* of *M*, and $\hat{\chi}(M)$ is the permutation of [n] achieved by removing the parentheses from $\chi(M)$; see paragraph after Theorem 16. For the above example, $\chi(M') = (\{4, 6, 8\}, \{1, 7\}, \{2, 3, 5\})$ and $\hat{\chi}(M') = (4, 6, 8, 1, 7, 2, 3, 5)$.

Given $M \in C_n$ with $w(M) = (w_1, \ldots, w_n)$ and $\hat{\chi}(M) = (\hat{\chi}_1, \ldots, \hat{\chi}_n)$, let us define the sequence $\eta(M) = (a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ by $a_i = 1 + w_j$ where $i = \hat{\chi}_j$. (For the small example above, we have $\eta(M') = (3, 5, 5, 1, 5, 1, 3, 1)$.) Recall [11, p. 94] that a sequence $\eta = (a_1, \ldots, a_n) \in [n]^n$ is a *parking function* if and only if the increasing rearrangement $b_1 \leq b_2 \leq \cdots \leq b_n$ of a_1, \ldots, a_n satisfies $b_i \leq i$.

Theorem 19. Matrices in C_n are in one-to-one correspondence with parking functions of order n. The parking function that corresponds to the matrix $M \in C_n$ is (a_1, \ldots, a_n) where $a_{\hat{\chi}_i} = 1 + w_j$ and $M \leftrightarrow (w(M), \hat{\chi}(M))$.

3.1. Diagonal and bidiagonal composition matrices. Consider the set of diagonal matrices DiComp_n in Comp_n . Under the bijection f these matrices map to pairs $(\alpha, \chi) \in \mathfrak{A}_n$ where α is a non-decreasing ascent sequence. Applying ϕ to $f(\text{DiComp}_n)$ we get the collection of (2+2)-free posets P which have the property that every element at level j covers every element at level j - 1, for all levels j but the first. Reading the levels from bottom to top we get an ordered set partition of [1, n]. It is not hard to see that this ordered set partition is, in fact, χ . For instance,

It follows that there are exactly k!S(n,k) diagonal composition matrices of size n and dimension k, where S(n,k) is the number of partitions of an n element set into k parts (a *Stirling number of the second kind*). For bidiagonal composition matrices the situation is a bit more complicated:

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Proposition 20. We have

$$\sum_{n \ge 0} \sum_{A \in \operatorname{BiComp}_n} q^{\dim(A)} \frac{x^n}{n!} = \frac{q e^{2x} - q e^x - 1}{(1-q)q e^{2x} + 2q^2 e^x - q^2 - q - 1},$$

where BiComp_n is the collection of bidiagonal matrices in Comp_n .

Proof. Let \mathcal{B}_n be the collection of binary bidiagonal matrices in \mathcal{M}_n . A matrix $A \in \operatorname{BiComp}_n$ can in a natural and simple way be identified with a pair (B, χ) where $B \in \mathcal{B}_k$, $k = \operatorname{nz}(\operatorname{Card}(A))$, and χ is an ordered set partition of [1, n]:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \{3,8\} & \{6\} & \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \{2,5,7\} & \emptyset \\ \emptyset & \emptyset & \{1,4\} \end{bmatrix} \leftrightarrow \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \{3,8\}\{6\}\{2,5,7\}\{1,4\} \right)$$

Thus, if F(q, x) is the ordinary generating function for matrices in \mathcal{B}_n counted by dimension and size, then $F(q, e^x - 1)$ is the exponential generating function we require. This is because F(q, x) is also the generating function for pairs (B, π) where $B \in \mathcal{B}_n$ and $\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_n$, and $e^x - 1$ is the exponential generating function for non-empty sets.

We now derive F(q, x) using the transfer-matrix method. We grow the matrices in \mathcal{B}_n from left to right by adding new columns, and within a column we add ones from top to bottom:

Here ϵ is the empty matrix; [1] is the 1 × 1 identity matrix; $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ denotes any matrix in \mathcal{B}_n of dimension 2 or more whose bottom most entries in the last column are 0 and 1; etc. Calculating the first entry in $(1 - xM)^{-1}[11101]^T$ we find that

$$F(q,x) = \sum_{n \ge 0} \sum_{A \in \mathcal{B}_n} q^{\dim(A)} x^n = \frac{qx^2 + qx - 1}{(1-q)qx^2 + 2qx - 1},$$

and on simplifying $F(q, e^x - 1)$ we arrive at the claimed generating function. \Box

4. The number of (2+2)-free posets on [1, n]

Let us consider plane (2+2)-free posets on [1, n]. That is, (2+2)-free posets on [1, n] with a canonical embedding in the plane. For instance, these are six different plane (2+2)-free posets on $[1, 3] = \{1, 2, 3\}$:

By definition, if u_n is the number of unlabeled (2+2)-free posets on n nodes, then $u_n n!$ is the number of plane (2+2)-free posets on [1, n]. In other words, we may identify the set of plane (2+2)-free posets on [1, n] with the Cartesian product

 $\mathcal{P}_n \times \mathfrak{S}_n$, where \mathcal{P}_n denotes the set of unlabeled (2+2)-free posets on n nodes and \mathfrak{S}_n denotes the set of permutations on [1, n]. We shall demonstrate the isomorphism

$$\bigcup_{\tau \in \mathfrak{S}_n} \mathfrak{P}(\operatorname{Cyc}(\pi)) \simeq \mathcal{P}_n \times \mathfrak{S}_n, \tag{2}$$

where $\operatorname{Cyc}(\pi)$ is the set of (disjoint) cycles of π and $\mathfrak{P}(\operatorname{Cyc}(\pi))$ is the set of (2+2)-free posets on those cycles. As an illustration we consider the case n = 3. On the right-hand side we have $|\mathcal{P}_3 \times \mathfrak{S}_3| = |\mathcal{P}_3||\mathfrak{S}_3| = 5 \cdot 6 = 30$ plane (2+2)-free posets. Taking the cardinality of the left-hand side we get

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathfrak{P}\{(1),(2),(3)\}| + |\mathfrak{P}\{(1),(23)\}| + |\mathfrak{P}\{(12),(3)\}| + |\mathfrak{P}\{(2),(13)\}| + |\mathfrak{P}\{(123)\}| + |\mathfrak{P}\{(132)\}| \\ = |\mathfrak{P}_3| + 3|\mathfrak{P}_2| + 2|\mathfrak{P}_1| = 19 + 3 \cdot 3 + 2 \cdot 1 = 30. \end{aligned}$$

Bousquet-Mélou et al. [2] gave a bijection Ψ from \mathcal{P}_n to \mathcal{A}_n , the set of ascent sequences of length n. Recall also that in Theorem 18 we gave a bijection ϕ from \mathfrak{P}_n to \mathfrak{A}_n . Of course, there is nothing special about the ground set being [1, n] in Theorem 18; so, for any finite set X, the map ϕ can be seen as a bijection from (2+2)-free posets on X to the set

$$\mathfrak{A}(X) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}_{|X|}} \{\alpha\} \times \binom{X}{\operatorname{RLR}(\alpha)}.$$

In addition, the fundamental transformation [3] is a bijection between permutations with exactly k cycles and permutations with exactly k left-to-right minima. Putting these observations together it is clear that to show (2) it suffices to show

$$\bigcup_{\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_n} \mathfrak{A}(\operatorname{LMin}(\pi)) \simeq \mathcal{A}_n \times \mathfrak{S}_n, \tag{3}$$

where $\text{LMin}(\pi)$ is the set of segments obtained by breaking π apart at each left-to-right minima. For instance, the left-to-right minima of $\pi = 5731462$ are 5, 3 and 1; so $\text{LMin}(\pi) = \{57, 3, 1462\}$.

Let us now prove (3) by giving a bijection h from the left-hand side to the righthand side. To this end, fix a permutation $\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_n$ and let $k = |\text{LMin}(\pi)|$ be the number of left-to-right minima in π . Assume that $\alpha = (a_1, \ldots, a_k)$ is an ascent sequence in \mathcal{A}_k and that $\chi = (X_1, \ldots, X_r)$ is an ordered set partition in $\binom{\text{LMin}(\pi)}{\text{RLR}(\alpha)}$. To specify the bijection h let

$$h(\alpha, \chi) = (\beta, \tau)$$

where $\beta \in \mathcal{A}_n$ and $\tau \in \mathfrak{S}_n$ are defined in the next paragraph.

For each $i \in [1, r]$, first order the blocks of X_i decreasingly with respect to first (and thus minimal) element, then concatenate the blocks to form a word \hat{X}_i . Define the permutation τ as the concatenation of the words \hat{X}_i :

$$\tau = X_1 \dots X_k.$$

Let $i_1 = 1$, $i_2 = i_1 + |X_1|$, $i_3 = i_2 + |X_2|$, etc. By definition, these are the indices where the ascent sequence α changes in value. Define β by

$$RLE(\beta) = (a_{i_1}, x_1) \dots (a_{i_k}, x_k), \text{ where } x_i = |X_i|.$$

Consider the permutation $\pi = A9B68D4F32C175E \in \mathfrak{S}_{15}$ (in hexadecimal notation). Then $LMin(\pi) = \{A, 9B, 68D, 4F, 3, 2C, 175E\}$. Assume that

$$\begin{split} &\alpha = (0,0,1,2,2,2,0); \\ &\chi = \{2\mathrm{C},68\mathrm{D}\}\{9\mathrm{B}\}\{3,175\mathrm{E},4\mathrm{F}\}\{\mathrm{A}\}. \end{split}$$

Then we have $\hat{X}_1 = 68\text{D2C}$, $\hat{X}_2 = 9\text{B}$, $\hat{X}_3 = 4\text{F}3175\text{E}$ and $\hat{X}_4 = \text{A}$. Also, $i_1 = 1$, $i_2 = 1 + 2 = 3$, $i_3 = 3 + 1 = 4$ and $i_4 = 4 + 3 = 7$. Consequently,

$$\beta = (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 0);$$

$$\tau = 6 \ 8 \ D \ 2 \ C \ 9 \ B \ 4 \ F \ 3 \ 1 \ 7 \ 5 \ E \ A.$$

It is clear how to reverse this procedure: Split τ into segments according to where β changes in value when reading from left to right. With τ as above we get

$$(68D2C, 9B, 4F3175E, A) = (\hat{X}_1, \hat{X}_2, \hat{X}_3, \hat{X}_4)$$

We have thus recovered \hat{X}_1 , \hat{X}_2 , etc. Now $X_i = \text{LMin}(\hat{X}_i)$, and we thus know χ . It only remains to recover α . Assume that $\text{RLE}(\beta) = (b_1, x_1) \dots (b_k, x_k)$, then $\text{RLE}(\alpha) = (b_1, |X_1|) \dots (b_k, |X_k|)$. This concludes the proof of (3). Let us record this result.

Theorem 21. The map $h: \bigcup_{\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_n} \mathfrak{A}(\operatorname{LMin}(\pi)) \to \mathcal{A}_n \times \mathfrak{S}_n$ is a bijection.

As previously explained, (2) also follows from this proposition. Let us now use (2) to derive an exponential generating function L(t) for the number of (2+2)-free posets on [1, n]. Bousquet-Mélou et al. [2] gave the following *ordinary* generating function for *unlabeled* (2+2)-free posets on n nodes:

$$P(t) = \sum_{n \ge 0} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left(1 - (1-t)^i \right)$$

= 1 + t + 2t² + 5t³ + 15t⁴ + 53t⁵ + 217t⁶ + 1014t⁷ + 5335t⁸ + O(t⁹).

This is, of course, also the exponential generating function for plane (2 + 2)-free posets on [1, n]. Moreover, the exponential generating function for cyclic permutations is $\log(1/(1-t))$. On taking the union over $n \ge 0$ of both sides of (2) it follows that $L(\log(1/(1-t))) = P(t)$; so $L(t) = P(1 - e^{-t})$.

Corollary 22. The exponential generating function for (2+2)-free posets is

$$L(t) = \sum_{n \ge 0} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left(1 - e^{-ti} \right)$$

= 1 + t + 3 $\frac{t^2}{2!}$ + 19 $\frac{t^3}{3!}$ + 207 $\frac{t^4}{4!}$ + 3451 $\frac{t^5}{5!}$ + 81663 $\frac{t^6}{6!}$ + 2602699 $\frac{t^7}{7!}$ + $O(t^8)$.

This last result also follows from a result of Zagier [12, Eq. 24] and a bijection, due to Bousquet-Mélou et. al [2], between unlabeled (2+2)-free posets and certain matchings. See also Exercises 14 and 15 in Chapter 3 of the second edition of Enumerative Combinatorics volume 1 (available on R. Stanley's homepage).

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