

# 18.212: Algebraic Combinatorics

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This class is being taught by **Professor Postnikov**.

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As MIT students, we probably know a lot about computer science.

### Fact 1

The Bible of computer science is “The Art of Computer Programming” by Knuth, and a lot of the material of this class comes from it.

### Definition 2

A **queue** is a data structure that is first in first out, while a **stack** is last in first out.

A queue contains one or several entries, and it’s like a line: if you enter the line first, you will exit first. Meanwhile, a stack is like a pile of papers. Main idea: we can use these to sort permutations, and Catalan numbers will appear again!

### Proposition 3

The number of queue-sortable permutations of  $(1, 2, \dots, n)$  is equal to  $C_n$ .

What does it mean to be **queue-sortable**?

### Example 4

For  $n = 4$ ,  $(2, 4, 1, 3)$  is queue-sortable. Put 2, then 4 in the queue, then put 1 in our list directly, take 2 out of the queue, put 3 directly, and then take 4 out of the queue.

But an example of something not queue-sortable is  $(3, 2, 1)$ . We would have to put 3 in the queue and then 2, and that’s bad because 3 comes out first.

### Proposition 5

The number of stack-sortable permutations of  $(1, 2, \dots, n)$  is also equal to  $C_n$ .

For example,  $(4, 1, 3, 2)$  is stack-sortable, since we put 4 in the stack, put 1 in the list directly, then put 3 and 2 in the stack and pop everything back out. But  $(2, 3, 1)$  is not stack-sortable.

The idea of sortability is related to the concept in combinatorics of **pattern avoidance**.

### Definition 6

Given a permutation  $w = (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n)$  of size  $n$ , where  $w \in S_n$ , the symmetric group, and a permutation  $\pi = \pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_k$  of size  $k \leq n$ , we say that  $w$  **contains** pattern  $\pi$  if there exists a not-necessarily-consecutive set (**subsequence**) of entries  $w_{i_1}, w_{i_2}, \dots, w_{i_k}$ , whose entries are in the same relative order as  $\pi$ . Meanwhile,  $w$  is  **$\pi$ -avoiding** if it does not contain pattern  $\pi$ .

For example, let  $w = (3, 5, 2, 4, 1, 6)$ . If  $\pi = (2, 1, 3)$ , then  $w$  does contain  $\pi$ .

### Proposition 7

Queue-sortable permutations are exactly those permutations that are 321-avoiding. Meanwhile, stack-sortable permutations are those that are 231-avoiding. Finally, for any pattern  $\pi$  of size 3, the number of  $\pi$ -avoiding permutations is  $C_n$ .

This is left as an exercise! By the way, we will not be required to solve all problems in a problem set, so some will be easier and some will be harder.

Time to move to the next topic! We're going to talk about **partitions, Young diagrams, and Young tableaux**.

### Fact 8

Since the word "tableau" is French, we add an "x" to the end to make it plural.

### Definition 9

A **partition** of  $n$  is a list of integers

$$\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_e)$$

such that  $n = \lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_e$ , the  $\lambda_i$ s are weakly decreasing, and all  $\lambda_i$  are positive integers.

We're talking about partitions, not compositions, so order doesn't matter. It's just by convention that people write them this way!

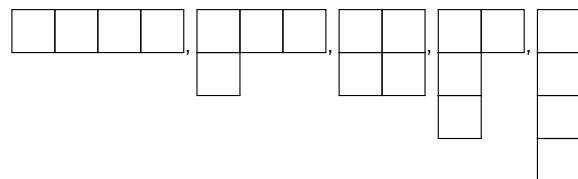
### Example 10

Since  $4 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 = 2 + 1 + 1 = 2 + 2 = 3 + 1 = 4$ , there are 5 partitions of 4.

### Definition 11

A **Young diagram** is a shape where there are rows of  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots$  boxes that are left-justified. A similar term, Ferrers shapes, refers to similar diagrams with dots instead of boxes.

Here's what the Young diagrams look like for the partitions of 4:

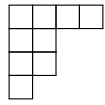


**Definition 12**

A **Standard Young Tableau** (SYT) is a way to fill in the boxes of a Young digram with numbers  $1, 2, \dots, n$  (without repetition) such that the numbers are increasing across rows and down the columns.

For example, if  $\lambda = (4, 2, 2, 1)$ , our tableau looks like 


. By abuse of notation, we'll use  $\lambda$  for the Young diagrams



as well, and here's an example of a Young diagram:

1	3	4	7
2	6		
5	9		
8			

**Definition 13**

Let  $f^\lambda$  be the number of standard Young tableaux of shape  $\lambda$ .

**Lemma 14**

For  $\lambda = (n, n)$ , the number of standard Young tableau is

$$f^{(n,n)} = C_n.$$

*Proof.* Given a Standard Young Tableaux, construct a sequence  $\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_{2n}$  such that

$$\epsilon_i = \begin{cases} + & \text{if } i \text{ is in the first row} \\ - & \text{if it is in the second row} \end{cases}.$$

These are exactly the sequences that correspond to Dyck paths! For example, the following Young tableau corresponds to the Dyck path  $(+, +, -, +, -, -, +, +, -, -)$ :

1	2	4	7	8
3	5	6	9	10

Any Young tableau will correspond to a path, since we always have at least as many integers in the top row as the bottom, and any path will correspond to a Young tableau: just write it out!

□

So we have a nice formula for  $f^{(n,n)}$ : we can think of these Young tableaux as an extension of the Catalan numbers. Is there a nice formula for  $f$  in general?

**Theorem 15** (Hook Length Formula: Frame, Robinson, Thrall)

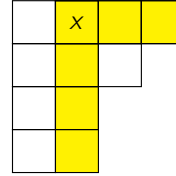
The number of standard Young tableaux for a partition  $\lambda$  is

$$f^\lambda = \frac{n!}{\prod_{x \in \lambda} h(x)}$$


where  $h(x)$  are the **hook lengths**; that is, the number of squares in a hook that goes to the right and down from square  $x$ . The **arm** is the length of the horizontal component not including  $x$ , and the **leg** is the length of the vertical

component not including  $x$ .

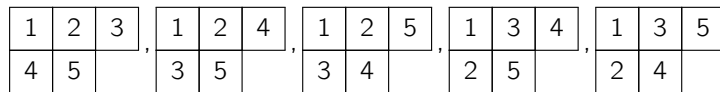
For example, this hook has length 6, arm length 2, and leg length 3:



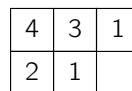
**Example 16**

Take the partition  $\lambda = (3, 2)$ , so the Young diagram looks like .

The possible Young tableaux are



Meanwhile, here are the hook lengths for each square in the tableau:



By HLF, the number of possible standard Young tableaux is indeed

$$f^\lambda = \frac{5!}{4 \cdot 3 \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 1} = 5$$

as expected. There are many proofs of the Hook Length Formula, and it initially comes from representation theory. However, now there is a probabilistic proof using random walks, which we will cover later!

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