Odds and Evens Permutation statistics of the Alternating subgroup

Experimental Math Seminar November 14, 2024

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• A quick look at descents and excedances

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- Their signed variants

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- Descents and Excedances over \mathcal{A}_n

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- Some generalisations

DESCENT ●OOOO	SIGNED DESCENTS	EXCEDANCE 0000	SIGNED EXCEDANCES	\mathfrak{s}_n vs \dashv_n 000000000	WILF-EQUIVALENCE RESULTS

Descents

1. Take a permutation $\pi = \pi_1 \pi_2 \dots \pi_n \in \mathfrak{S}_n$.

Example: $\pi = 3712546$

Let \mathfrak{S}_n denote the set of permutations of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

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- 2. Identify the positions *i* where $\pi_i > \pi_{i+1}$.

Example: $\pi = 37_0 125_0 46$

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- 2. Identify the positions *i* where $\pi_i > \pi_{i+1}$.
- 3. des $(\pi) = |\{i : \pi_i > \pi_{i+1}\}|$

$\pi = 37_0 125_0 46$ des(3712546) = 2

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 - 3. des $(\pi) = |\{i : \pi_i > \pi_{i+1}\}$

Note that des is a function from \mathfrak{S}_n to \mathbb{N} for all n. Descent is an example of a permutation statistic, a map from the set $\bigcup_{n \ge 1} \mathfrak{S}_n$ to the set \mathbb{N} .

Let \mathfrak{S}_n denote the set of permutations of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

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What better to encode it than as a polynomial

$$A_n(t) := \sum_{d=0}^{n-1} A(n,d) t^d = \sum_{\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_n} t^{\operatorname{des}(\pi)}$$

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These polynomials are the famous Eulerian polynomials that enjoy multiple exciting properties. It is palindromic and has only real roots. SIGNED DESCENTS EXCED

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 \mathfrak{s}_n vs \dashv_n

WILF-EQUIVALENCE RESULTS

Enumerating polynomials

Here is a list of the first 5 Eulerian polynomials.

• $A_1(t) = 1$

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- $A_2(t) = 1 + t$
- $A_3(t) = 1 + 4t + t^2$
- $A_4(t) = 1 + 11t + 11t^2 + t^3$
- $A_5(t) = 1 + 26t + 66t^2 + 26t^3 + t^4$

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Enumerating polynomials

In fact, we can do this with any statistic. Given a statistic stat : $\cup_{n \ge 1} \mathfrak{S}_n \mapsto \mathbb{N}$, we have the stat-enumerating polynomial

$$\operatorname{stat}_n(t) := \sum_{\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_n} t^{\operatorname{stat}(\pi)}.$$

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In fact, we can do this with any statistic. Given a statistic stat : $\cup_{n \ge 1} \mathfrak{S}_n \mapsto \mathbb{N}$, we have the stat-enumerating polynomial

$$\operatorname{stat}_n(t) := \sum_{\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_n} t^{\operatorname{stat}(\pi)}.$$

We will also use the signed stat-enumerating polynomial

$$\operatorname{SgnStat}_n(t) := \sum_{\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_n} \operatorname{sign}(\pi) t^{\operatorname{stat}(\pi)}$$

Why stop at one variable?

Given a *r*-tuple of permutation statistics ($stat_1, stat_2, ..., stat_r$), we have the ($stat_1, stat_2, ..., stat_r$)-enumerating polynomial

$$(\operatorname{stat}_1, \operatorname{stat}_2, \ldots, \operatorname{stat}_r)_n(t_1, \ldots, t_r) := \sum_{\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_n} t_1^{\operatorname{stat}_1(\pi)} \ldots t_r^{\operatorname{stat}_r(\pi)}.$$

Similarly, the signed $(stat_1 stat_2 \dots stat_r)$ -enumerating polynomial is

$$(\operatorname{SgnStat}_1 \dots \operatorname{Stat}_r)_n(t_1, \dots, t_r) := \sum_{\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_n} \operatorname{sign}(\pi) t_1^{\operatorname{stat}_1(\pi)} \cdots t_r^{\operatorname{stat}_r(\pi)}.$$



Why study the signed enumerating polynomials?

Because knowing stat_n(t) and SgnStat_n(t) allows us to do stat_n(t) + Sgnstat_n(t) = $\sum_{\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_n} \left(t^{\text{stat}(\pi)} + \text{sign}(\pi) t^{\text{stat}(\pi)} \right)$ = $2 \sum_{\pi \in \mathcal{A}_n} t^{\text{stat}(\pi)}$. Therefore, we can get the distribution of the statistic over \mathcal{A}_n .

Here, A_n is the alternating subgroup in \mathfrak{S}_n .

Let us look at the signed descent enumerating polynomial.

Signed Eulerian Numbers

SIGNED DESCENTS

Loday, when studying the cyclic homology of commutative algebras, came across a sequence of numbers (SgnDes_{n,k}) related to the classical Eulerian numbers.

$$\operatorname{SgnDes}_{n,k} := \sum_{\sigma \in \mathfrak{S}_n: \operatorname{des}(\sigma) = k} \operatorname{sign}(\sigma)$$

$$\operatorname{SgnDes}_{n}(t) := \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \operatorname{SgnDes}_{n,k} t^{k} = \sum_{\sigma \in \mathfrak{S}_{n}} \operatorname{sign}(\sigma) t^{\operatorname{des}(\sigma)}.$$

Theorem (Foata, Desarmenien [4]) The SgnDes_n(t) satisfy

$$\operatorname{SgnDes}_{2n}(t) = (1-t)^n \operatorname{des}_n(t),$$

$$\operatorname{SgnDes}_{2n+1}(t) = (1-t)^n \operatorname{des}_{n+1}(t)$$



An involution?

Let's look at SgnDes_n(t) for n = 3.

- sign(123) = 1, des(123) = 0
- sign(132) = -1, des(132) = 1
- sign(213) = -1, des(213) = 1
- sign(231) = 1, des(231) = 1
- sign(312) = 1, des(312) = 1
- sign(321) = -1, des(321) = 2

So, SgnDes₃(t) = $1 - t - t + t + t - t^2 = (1 - t)(1 + t)$.

An involution?

Is there a sign reversing involution that explains all the cancellations and the terms that will be left at the end?



Wachs' involution

1. Take a permutation $\pi = \pi_1 \pi_2 \dots \pi_n \in \mathfrak{S}_n$.

Example: $\pi = 3712546$



Wachs' involution

- 1. Take a permutation $\pi = \pi_1 \pi_2 \dots \pi_n \in \mathfrak{S}_n$.
- 2. Find the smallest 2i 1 and 2i such that they are not adjacent in the permutation.

Example: $\pi = \underline{3712546}$



Wachs' involution

- 1. Take a permutation $\pi = \pi_1 \pi_2 \dots \pi_n \in \mathfrak{S}_{2n}$.
- 2. Find the smallest 2i 1 and 2i such that they are not adjacent in the permutation.
- 3. If *i* exists, $f(\pi) = (2i 1, 2i).\pi$. Else, $f(\pi) = \pi$.

$$\pi = 3712546$$

 $f(3712546) = 4712536$

Fixed points

- A barred permutation on \mathfrak{S}_n is a permutation written in one line notation along with some bars over some symbols of the permutation.
- Example: 24153 is a barred permutation. 24153 also a barred permutation.

Fixed points

For 2*n*, the fixed points are in bijection with barred permutations on \mathfrak{S}_n . Replace *i* by 2i - 1, 2i and \overline{i} by 2i, 2i - 1.

 $24\overline{15}3 \longleftrightarrow 347821(10)956$

For 2n + 1, the fixed points are in bijection with barred permutations on \mathfrak{S}_{n+1} where the element n + 1 is unbarred. Replace $i \neq n + 1$ by 2i - 1, 2i, replace \overline{i} by 2i, 2i - 1 and finally, n + 1 by 2n + 1.

 $2\overline{41}53 \longleftrightarrow 348721956$

Let us look at another permutation statistic.



Excedance statistic

1. Take a permutation $\pi = \pi_1 \pi_2 \dots \pi_n \in \mathfrak{S}_n$.

Example:

$$\pi = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 3 & 7 & 1 & 2 & 5 & 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

Excedance statistic

- 1. Take a permutation $\pi = \pi_1 \pi_2 \dots \pi_n \in \mathfrak{S}_n$.
- 2. Identify the positions *i* where $\pi_i > i$.

EXCEDANCE

Example:

$$\pi = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ \underline{3} & \underline{7} & 1 & 2 & 5 & 4 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$



Excedance statistic

- 1. Take a permutation $\pi = \pi_1 \pi_2 \dots \pi_n \in \mathfrak{S}_n$.
- 2. Identify the positions *i* where $\pi_i > \pi_{i+1}$.
- 3. $exc(\pi) = |\{i : \pi_i > i\}|.$





It is one of the first results in permutation statistics proven nearly 100 years ago, by MacMahon, that

$$\sum_{\sigma\in\mathfrak{S}_n}t^{\mathsf{des}(\sigma)}=\sum_{\sigma\in\mathfrak{S}_n}t^{\mathsf{exc}(\sigma)}.$$

A bijective proof of this, i.e. one that a permutation with k descents to one with k excedances, is the first fundamental transformation.

Let's look at the signed excedance enumerating polynomial.

Signed Excedance numbers

Theorem (Mantaci [8]) For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ SgnExc_n $(t) = \sum_{\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_n} \operatorname{sign}(\pi) t^{\operatorname{exc}(\pi)} = (1-t)^{n-1}$.

We will look at a sign reversing involution that gives us this result. But before that, we will also look at a simpler proof of this fact.



Consider the
$$n \times n$$
 matrix $M_n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & t & \dots & t & t \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & t & t \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 & t \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Then, $det(M_n) = \sum_{\sigma \in \mathfrak{S}_n} sign(\sigma) m_{1,\sigma(1)} \dots m_{n,\sigma(n)}$.

Now, $m_{i,\sigma(i)} = 1$ if *i* is not an excedance position and $m_{i,\sigma(i)} = t$ if it is. Therefore, $det(M) = SgnExc_n(t) = \sum_{\sigma \in \mathfrak{S}_n} sign(\sigma)t^{exc(\sigma)}$. This determinant can be explicitly computed (say, using recursion) to be $(1-t)^{n-1}$. This completes the proof.

Canonical reduced words

Let s_i be the transposition (i, i + 1). We know that \mathfrak{S}_n is generated by s_1, \ldots, s_{n-1} .

We will look at a canonical way to write any permutation as a product of these generators.

How to get it?

- 1. To get $\pi_1 \dots \pi_n$, we start from the permutation $12 \dots n$.
- 2. We will multiply identity with generators on the right to move the element π_n to the last position. We will use r_n to keep track of the generators we multiplied.
- 3. Multiply generators to get π_{n-1} to its correct position. Keep track of what we multiplied with r_{n-1} .
- 4. Repeat this process till we have arrived at our required permutation.



Therefore, we get a canonical reduced word decomposition for $\pi = 41523$ namely $r_5r_4r_3r_2r_1 = [s_3s_4][s_2s_3][1][s_1][1]$.

Observations

- 1. $r_n \dots r_i$, by definition, will get π_i to its correct spot.
- 2. r_i will look like $s_j s_{j+1} \dots s_{i-1}$. It has to end with s_{i-1} . Therefore, it can be at most of length i 1.
- 3. If r_i has length 1, the previous line implies that $r_i = s_{i-1}$.

An involution on canonical reduced words

For a permutation, find the rightmost r_{i+1} , say r_{i_0+1} , which has length ≥ 2 . The one to its right, r_{i_0} , is forced to have length 1 or 0. If it was length 1, it had to be s_{i_0-1} . If it was length 0, it was just 1.

If it was s_{i_0-1} , flip it to 1. If it was 1, flip it to s_{i_0-1} .

If such there is no component of length 2 or more, leave it fixed. This is our involution.

Example: $\pi = 41523 = r_5 r_4 r_3 r_2 r_1 = [s_3 s_4] [s_2 s_3] [1] [s_1] [1]$. We will flip r_3 . Our involution yields $f_A(41523) = [s_3 s_4] [s_2 s_3] [s_2] [s_1] [1] = 51423$.

We will look at some of the interesting properties that the Eulerian distribution over \mathfrak{S}_n satisfies and compare them with the \mathcal{A}_n counterparts.

γ -positivity for the Eulerian distribution

A sequence is said to be γ -positive if the sequence can be written as a \mathbb{Z} -linear combination of rows of the Pascal triangle with the same center of symmetry.

Example:

1	4	6	4	1	
0	1	2	1	0	$\times 22$
0	0	1	0	0	imes16
1	26	66	26	1	

Every palindromic sequence of positive integers (one that reads the same from front and back) can be written in this way.

γ -positivity for palindromic polynomials

A polynomial is said to be γ -positive if the polynomial can be written as a \mathbb{Z} -linear combinations of polynomials of the form $t^{j}(1+t)^{n-2j}$. (t^{j} shifts the center of symmetry)

Theorem (Foata, Schutzenberger [5])

There exists $\gamma_{n,j} \geqslant 0$ such that the Eulerian polynomial $A_n(t)$ can be written as

$$A_n(t) = \sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor \frac{n-1}{2} \rfloor} \gamma_{n,j} t^j (1+t)^{n-1-2j}.$$



γ -positivity for descents over \mathcal{A}_n

The polynomials

$$A_n^+(t) = \sum_{\pi \in \mathcal{A}_n} t^{\operatorname{des}(\pi)}$$
, $A_n^-(t) = \sum_{\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_n - \mathcal{A}_n} t^{\operatorname{des}(\pi)}$

are not palindromic for all n. This is slightly disappointing. However, whenever they are palindromic, they are γ -positive.

Theorem (Dey, Sivasubramanian [2])

The polynomials $A_n^+(t)$, $A_n^-(t)$ are γ -positive iff $n \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{4}$ with the same center of symmetry.



γ -positivity for excedances over \mathcal{A}_n

The polynomials

$$AE_n^+(t) = \sum_{\pi \in \mathcal{A}_n} t^{\operatorname{exc}(\pi)},$$

$$AE_n^-(t) = \sum_{\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_n - \mathcal{A}_n} t^{\mathsf{exc}(\pi)}$$

are not palindromic for all *n*. They are palindromic for all odd positive integers *n*.

Theorem (Dey, Sivasubramanian [3])

The polynomials $AE_n^+(t)$, $AE_n^-(t)$ are γ -positive iff $n \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ with the same center of symmetry (n-1)/2.

Log-concavity of a sequence

A sequence $(a_k)_{k=1}^n$ of reals is said to be log-concave if for each $2 \leq i \leq n-1$, we have $a_i^2 \geq a_{i+1}a_{i-1}$.

A nice approach to proving log-concavity is the following theorem due to Newton.

Theorem

Let

$$P(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} a_k x^k$$

be a (real) polynomial with only real roots. Then, the sequence $(a_k)_{k=0}^n$ is log-concave.

Suppose the polynomial

$$\mathsf{P}'(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} a_k x^k$$

is real-rooted. Then the sequence $\frac{a_k}{\binom{n}{k}}$ is log-concave (this follows from Newton's theorem). A sequence $(a_k)_{k=0}^n$ is called ultra-log-concave if the sequence $(\frac{a_k}{\binom{n}{k}})_{k=0}^n$ is log-concave. So, sequences that appear as coefficients of real rooted polynomials are ultra-log-concave.

Real rootedness

The Eulerian polynomials are always real-rooted.

Theorem (Frobenius [6])

The Eulerian polynomials $A_n(t)$ have only real and simple roots for all natural $n \ge 1$.

However, we do not know counterparts of this result for the descent and excedance distributions over \mathcal{A}_n .

Conjecture (Fulman, Lee, Petersen, Kim [7])

The polynomials $A_n^+(t)$ and $A_n^-(t)$ are real-rooted for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Conjecture (Shankar)

The polynomials $AE_n^+(t)$ and $AE_n^-(t)$ are real-rooted for all n > 5.

Back to log-concavity: Synchronicity

Let $A = (a_k)_{k=1}^n$ and $B = (b_k)_{k=1}^n$ be two sequences. Let S(A, B) be the set of 2^n sequences $(c_k)_{k=1}^n$ such that $c_k \in \{a_k, b_k\}$.

Two sequences A, B are said to be strongly synchronised if all sequences in S(A, B) are log-concave. This implies that the sequences A, B themselves are log-concave.

Synchronicity over \mathcal{A}_n

 $B_{n,k}$ -number of permutations in \mathcal{A}_n with k descents $C_{n,k}$ -number of permutations in $\mathfrak{S}_n - \mathcal{A}_n$ with k descents $P_{n,k}$ -number of permutations in \mathcal{A}_n with k excedances $Q_{n,k}$ -number of permutations in $\mathfrak{S}_n - \mathcal{A}_n$ with k excedances **Theorem (Shankar)**

All 4^n sequences in $S((B_{n,k})_{k=0}^{n-1}, (C_{n,k})_{k=0}^{n-1}, (P_{n,k})_{k=0}^{n-1}, (Q_{n,k})_{k=0}^{n-1})$ are ultra log-concave.

Pattern Containment

Given a permutation $\tau = \tau_1 \dots \tau_k \in \mathfrak{S}_k$, a permutation $\pi = \pi_1 \dots \pi_n \in \mathfrak{S}_n$ is said to be contain the pattern τ if there is some sequence $i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k$ such that $\pi_{i_1} \dots \pi_{i_k}$ is order isomorphic to τ .

Example: 24153 contains the subsequence 413 which is order isomorphic to 312. Therefore, it contains the pattern 312. However, the permutation avoids the pattern 321.

Pattern Avoidance

- If π does not contain τ , then we say π avoids τ . We will denote the set of permutations in \mathfrak{S}_n that avoid τ by $\mathfrak{S}_n(\tau)$.
- For example, the number of permutations in \mathfrak{S}_{20} that avoid the pattern 213 is the password of our Zoom meeting.

Wilf Equivalence

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If for two patterns $\sigma, \tau \in \mathfrak{S}_k$, the cardinalities $|\mathfrak{S}_n(\sigma)| = |\mathfrak{S}_n(\tau)|$ are the same for every natural *n*, then the two patterns σ, τ are said to be Wilf-equivalent. We denote it by $\sigma \equiv_{\mathfrak{S}_n} \tau$.

For example, all three length patterns are Wilf-equivalent.

$$123 \equiv_{\mathfrak{S}_n} 132 \equiv_{\mathfrak{S}_n} 213 \equiv_{\mathfrak{S}_n} 231 \equiv_{\mathfrak{S}_n} 312 \equiv_{\mathfrak{S}_n} 321$$

even-Wilf-equivalence

We can imitate the definition of Wilf-equivalence for even permutations.

We call two patterns σ , τ to be even-Wilf-equivalent if

$$\mathfrak{S}_n(\sigma) \cap \mathcal{A}_n = \mathfrak{S}_n(\tau) \cap \mathcal{A}_n.$$

We will denote $\mathfrak{S}_n(\sigma) \cap \mathcal{A}_n$ by $\mathcal{A}_n(\sigma)$. We will denote even-Wilf-equivalence of two patterns σ, τ by $\sigma \equiv_{\mathcal{A}_n} \tau$.

For patterns of length 3 and 4

For length 3 patterns, we have the following theorem.

Theorem (Simion, Schmidt)

There are two distinct even-Wilf-equivalence classes for patterns of length 3.

1. 123 $\equiv_{\mathcal{A}_n}$ 312 $\equiv_{\mathcal{A}_n}$ 213

2. $132 \equiv_{A_n} 321 \equiv_{A_n} 231$ For length 4 patterns, we have the following theorem.

Theorem (Jaggard, Baxter [1])

There are 11 even-Wilf-equivalence classes for patterns of length 4.

For patterns of length 5 and above

As far as we know, there can be anywhere between 35 and 39 even-Wilf-equivalence classes.

Conjecture (Jaggard, Baxter [1])

The following equivalences hold:

- 1. 12345 \equiv_{A_n} 45312
- 2. 54321 $\equiv_{\mathcal{A}_n}$ 21354
- 3. 12354 \equiv_{A_n} 45321
- 4. 13524 \equiv_{A_n} 42531



A more surprising conjecture

Conjecture (Jaggard, Baxter [1])
If
$$\sigma \equiv_{A_n} \tau$$
, then $\sigma \equiv_{\mathfrak{S}_n} \tau$.

The conjecture asserts that if the number of even permutations avoiding σ and τ are the same, then the number of odd permutations avoiding σ and τ are the same.

Can we generalise these results somehow?

One way to generalise

The permutations in \mathcal{A}_n are the permutations in \mathfrak{S}_n whose number of inversions are 0 (mod 2).

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The permutations in \mathcal{A}_n are the permutations in \mathfrak{S}_n whose number of inversions are 0 (mod 2).

What about the permutations whose number of inversions are 0 (mod k)?

One way to generalise

The permutations in \mathcal{A}_n are the permutations in \mathfrak{S}_n whose number of inversions are 0 (mod 2).

What about the permutations whose number of inversions are 0 (mod k)?

Are the descent enumerating polynomials over these classes palindromic? γ -positive? Real rooted?

A conjecture?

I would like to end the talk with this conjecture.

Conjecture

Let $\mathfrak{S}_{n,3} := \{ \sigma \in \mathfrak{S}_n : \operatorname{inv}(\sigma) \equiv 0 \pmod{3} \}$. For $n \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{3}$ and $n \ge 4$, then the polynomial

$$\sum_{\sigma\in\mathfrak{S}_{n,3}}t^{\mathsf{des}(\pi)}$$

is γ -positive.

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