

1st proof. Just compute the D_i using Cor. 36. 1

$$\text{LHS} = D_n = n! \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} = n! \left(\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} + \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \right);$$

$$\text{RHS} = (n-1)(D_{n-1} + D_{n-2})$$

$$= (n-1) \left((n-1)! \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} + (n-2)! \sum_{k=0}^{n-2} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} \right)$$

$$\stackrel{L}{=} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} - \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}$$

$$= (n-1)(n-1)! \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} + \underbrace{(n-1)(n-2)!}_{=(n-1)!} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} - \underbrace{(n-1)(n-2)! \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}}_{=(-1)^{n-1}}$$

$$= \underbrace{(n-1)(n-1)! \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} + (n-1)! \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!}}_{=n(n-1)! \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!}} - (-1)^{n-1}$$

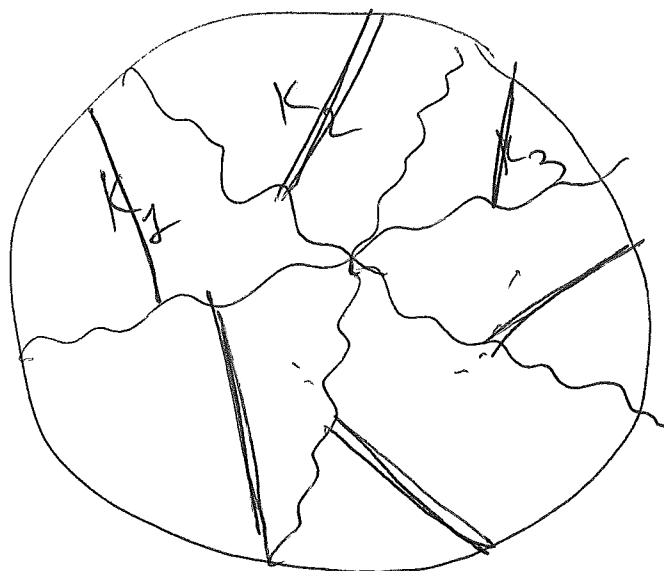
$$= n(n-1)! \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} = n! \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!}$$

$$= n! \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} - \underbrace{(-1)^{n-1}}_{=-n! \frac{(-1)^n}{n!}} = n! \left(\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} + \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \right),$$

which is the same. □

2nd proof. Classify the D_n derangements of $[n]$ into $n-1$ "kingdoms", each of which will contain 2 "genera".

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For each $i \in [n-1]$, the i -th kingdom K_i consists of the derangements π of $[n]$ with $\pi(n) = i$. Then each derangement lies in exactly 1 kingdom (since $\pi(n) \neq n$).

The 1st genus $G_{i,1}$ of the i -th kingdom consists of those $\pi \in K_i$ with $\pi(i) = n$.

The 2nd genus $G_{i,2}$ of the i -th kingdom consists of those $\pi \in K_i$ with $\pi(i) \neq n$.

Claim 1: Each 1st genus $G_{i,1}$ contains D_{n-2} derangements.

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Claim 2: Each 2nd genus $G_{i,2}$ contains D_{n-1} derangements.

Proof of Claim 1: How can we construct a derangement in $G_{i,1}$?

We take a derangement of the $(n-2)$ -element set $[n] \setminus \{n, i\}$, then extend it to the set $[n]$ by sending $n \mapsto i$ and $i \mapsto n$,

Thus, D_{n-2} options (since $(n-2)$ -elt. set has D_{n-2} derangements),

Proof of Claim 2: How can we construct a derangement in $G_{i,2}$?

We ~~start~~ choose a derangement γ of $[n-1]$, and then we "stick in" n "between" $\gamma^{-1}(i)$ and i ,

Formally: We start with a derangement γ of $[n-1]$, and then define $\pi: [n] \rightarrow [n]$ by

$$\pi(k) = \begin{cases} \gamma(k) & \text{if } k \neq n \text{ \& } k \neq \gamma^{-1}(i) \\ n & \text{if } k = \gamma^{-1}(i) \\ i & \text{if } k = n \end{cases}$$

④ Can check: π is a derangement in $G_{i,2}$ (since $\pi^{-1}(i) \neq i$).

Conversely, If π is a derangement in $G_{i,2}$, then the map $\gamma: [n-1] \rightarrow [n-1]$ defined by

$$\gamma(k) = \begin{cases} \pi(k) & \text{if } k \neq \pi^{-1}(n) \\ i & \text{if } k = \pi^{-1}(n) \end{cases}$$

is a derangement of $[n-1]$.

The maps $\pi \mapsto \gamma$ and $\gamma \mapsto \pi$ are mutually inverse, so bijections.

$$\text{Now, } D_n = \sum_i |K_i| = \sum_i (|G_{i,1}| + |G_{i,2}|)$$

$$\stackrel{\text{Claim 1}}{\stackrel{\text{Claim 2}}{=}} \sum_i (D_{n-2} + D_{n-1}) = (n-1)(D_{n-2} + D_{n-1}), \quad \square$$

What did actually happen in the proof of Claim 2?

Idea: cycle decomposition of a permutation.

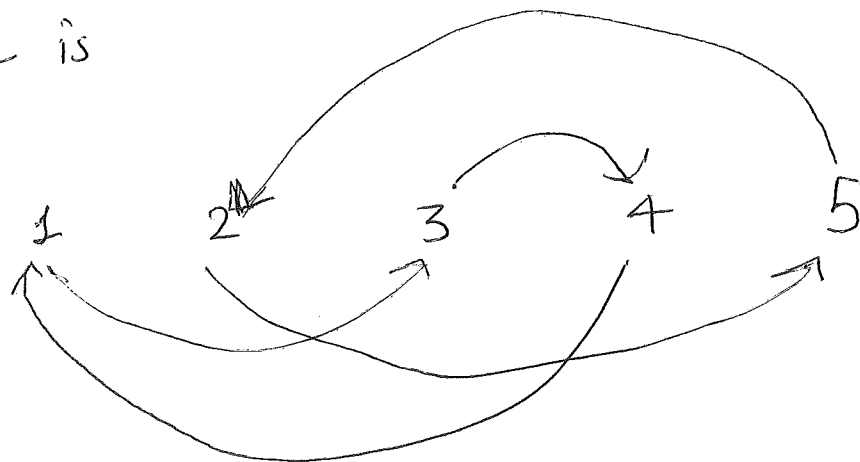
Short introduction:

Given a perm. γ of a set X , we represent it by a "picture": Draw a point ("node") for each $x \in X$, and draw an arrow ("arc") from each node $x \in X$ to the node $\gamma(x)$.

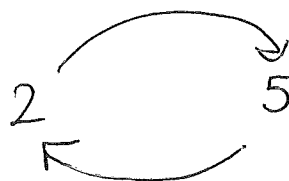
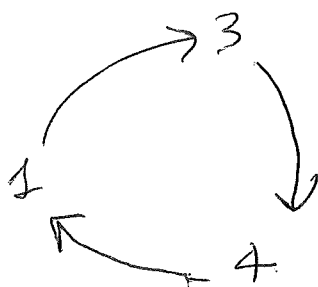
Examples: (a) If f is the perm. of $[5]$

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sending 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 to 3, 5, 4, 1, 2, then the picture is



~~represents~~ or



(placements of nodes doesn't matter),

(b) If f is the perm. of $[5]$ sending 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 to 4, 3, 2, 1, 5, then the picture is



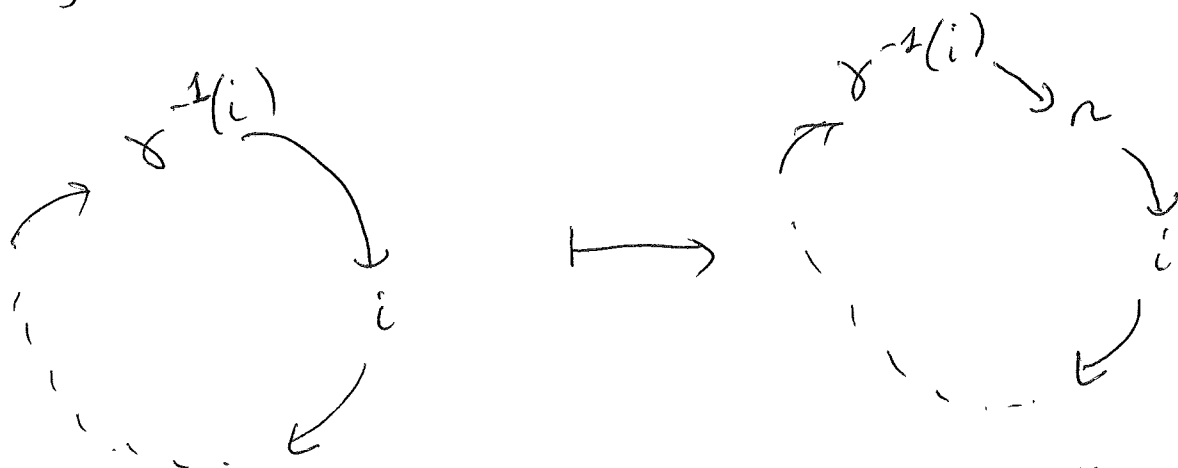
This picture is called the cycle digraph of f .
It is / represents a digraph (= directed graph),
which we'll study later.

The perm. ξ can be uniquely reconstructed ⑥
from this picture.

Each node has exactly 1 outgoing arc and
exactly 1 incoming arc. If X is finite, then
the picture $\#$ consists of a bunch of disjoint
cycles ("disjoint" = having no ~~nodes~~ nodes in common).

A permutation ξ is a derangement iff it has
no 1-node cycles.

In terms of cycle digraphs, the bijection $\gamma \mapsto \pi$
in the proof of Claim 2 inserts n into ~~a~~ a cycle
just before i :



The inverse bijection removes n from its cycle:



~~Rmk. Cor. 36 & Prop. 4~~

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Prop. 40, $n! = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} D_k, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N},$

Proof. Construct 2 perm. π of $[n]$ in the following way;

— Choose the # of non-fixed points of π . Call it k .

— Choose the k non-fixed points of π ;

There are $\binom{n}{k}$ ways to do this.

— choose what π does to these ~~non-fixed~~ k points.

There are D_k ways to do this.

$$\Rightarrow n! = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} D_k.$$

□

Rmk. Cor. 36 $\Leftrightarrow$ Prop. 40.

Indeed,

$$\text{Cor. 36} \Leftrightarrow D_n = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} (n-k)!$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{subs.} \\ \Leftrightarrow \\ i \text{ for } n-k \end{array} D_n = \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^{n-i} \binom{n}{i} i!$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (-1)^n D_n = \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i \binom{n}{i} i!$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{HW 4} \\ \Leftrightarrow \\ \text{ex. 15} \end{array} n! = \sum_{i=0}^n \cancel{(-1)^i} \binom{n}{i} \cancel{(-1)^i} D_i$$

$$\Leftrightarrow n! = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} D_i \Leftrightarrow \text{Prop. 40,}$$

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Prop. 42, $D_n = n D_{n-1} + (-1)^n \quad \forall n \geq 1.$

Proof. Easy using Cor. 36 (exercise),

Bijjective proof: much trickier,

(Benjamin & Ornstein:

A Bijjective Proof of a Derangement Recurrence.)

3.9. PS ON INCLUSION & EXCLUSION

Prop. 43, For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $m \in \mathbb{N}$, and $x \in \mathbb{Q}$,
set $z_{m,n}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} (x^{n-k} - 1)^m.$

Then, $z_{m,n}(x) = z_{n,m}(x).$

This is Add. exe 5 in [detnotes],

But it has a combinatorial proof for $x \in \mathbb{N}$:

Namely, $z_{m,n}(x) = \#$ of all $m \times n$ -matrices with
entries from $\{0, 1, \dots, x-1\}$
with no zero rows & no zero
columns.

(This is because we can set $U = \{m \times n\text{-matrices with}$
entries from $\{0, 1, \dots, x-1\}$ with
no zero rows $\}$,

$A_i = \{ \text{matrices in } U \text{ whose } i\text{-th column is } 0 \},$

Then, # (matrices with no zero columns & no zero rows)

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$$= |U \setminus (A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n)| = |U \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i|$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \underline{\underline{\text{incl/excl}}} \sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|} \underbrace{\left(\# \text{ matrices in } U \text{ having } i\text{-th} \right.}_{\text{column} = 0 \quad \forall i \in I} \\ & \qquad \qquad \qquad = (x^{n-|I|} - 1)^m \end{aligned}$$

(choose each row separately)

$$= \sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|} (x^{n-|I|} - 1)^m = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} (x^{n-k} - 1)^m$$

$$= z_{m,n}(x).$$

Get a bijection by transposing the matrices. $\square$

4. GENERATING FUNCTIONS

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4.1. EXAMPLES

Let me show what generating functions ("gfs") are good for. Then, in §4.2, I'll explain what they are. Suspend your disbelief for §4.1, please.

Basic idea: Any sequence $(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots)$ of numbers gives rise to a "power series" $a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots$, called its generating function. What does this mean? See later. (See also [Loehr].)

Before we make this rigorous, some examples:

Ex. 1. Recall the Fibonacci sequence $(f_0, f_1, f_2, \dots)$ with $f_0 = 0$ & $f_1 = 1$ & $f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$.

Consider its gf $F(x) = f_0 + f_1x + f_2x^2 + \dots$
 $= 0 + 1x + 1x^2 + 2x^3 + 3x^4 + \dots$

Then, $F(x) = 0 + 1x + (f_0 + f_1)x^2 + (f_1 + f_2)x^3 + (f_2 + f_3)x^4 + \dots$
 $= \cancel{0}x + (\cancel{f_0}x^2 + f_1x^3 + f_2x^4 + \dots)$
 $\quad + (f_1x^2 + f_2x^3 + f_3x^4 + \dots)$
 $= x + x^2(f_0 + f_1x + f_2x^2 + \dots)$
 $\quad + x(f_0 + f_1x + f_2x^2 + \dots) \quad (\text{since } f_0 = 0)$

$$= x + x^2 F(x) + x F(x),$$

Solving this for $F(x)$ yields

$$F(x) = \frac{x}{1-x-x^2}$$

(1) $\overset{\text{by partial fraction decomp}}{=} \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \cdot \frac{1}{1-\phi_1 x} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \cdot \frac{1}{1-\phi_2 x}$ where $\phi_1 = (1+\sqrt{5})/2$ and $\phi_2 = (1-\sqrt{5})/2$ are the "golden ratios",

What is $\frac{1}{1-\alpha x}$?

Well: $\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots$

(since $(1-x)(1+x+x^2+x^3+\dots)$
 $= (1 + \cancel{x} + \cancel{x^2} + \cancel{x^3} + \dots) - (\cancel{x} + \cancel{x^2} + \cancel{x^3} + \dots)$
 $= 1$),

so if we substitute αx for x where $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$, we

get $\frac{1}{1-\alpha x} = 1 + \alpha x + (\alpha x)^2 + (\alpha x)^3 + \dots$
 $= 1 + \alpha x + \alpha^2 x^2 + \alpha^3 x^3 + \dots$

Thus, (1) becomes

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left((1 + \phi_1 x + \phi_1^2 x^2 + \dots) - (1 + \phi_2 x + \phi_2^2 x^2 + \dots) \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} 1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} 1 \right) \\
&\quad + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \phi_1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \phi_2 \right) x \\
&\quad + \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \phi_1^2 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \phi_2^2 \right) x^2 \\
&\quad + \dots
\end{aligned}$$

Now, compare coefficients before x^n to get

$$f_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \phi_1^n - \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \phi_2^n.$$

(Binet's formula)

EX. 2, A Dyck word of length $2n$ is a $2n$ -tuple that contains n 0's and n 1's and has the property that for each k , the # of 0's among its first k entries is $\leq$ the # of 1's among its first k entries.

Examples: ~~(0, 1, 0, 1)~~ $(1, 0, 1, 0)$, $(1, 1, 0, 0)$,

$(1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0)$, $()$, $(1, 0)$.

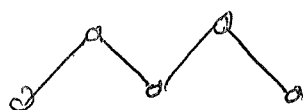
We often write D for 0 and U for 1.

Non-Dyck words: $(1, 0, 0, 1)$, $(0, 1)$,
 $(1, 1, 0)$, (1) .

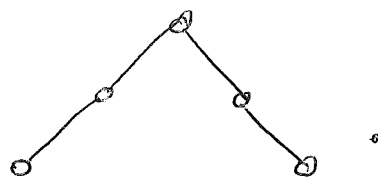
(13)

A Dyck path is a path $(0, 0) \rightarrow (2n, 0)$
 that moves by "NE steps" (= steps $(1, 1)$)
 and "SE steps" (steps $(1, -1)$) and never
 falls below the x-axis.

Examples:



or

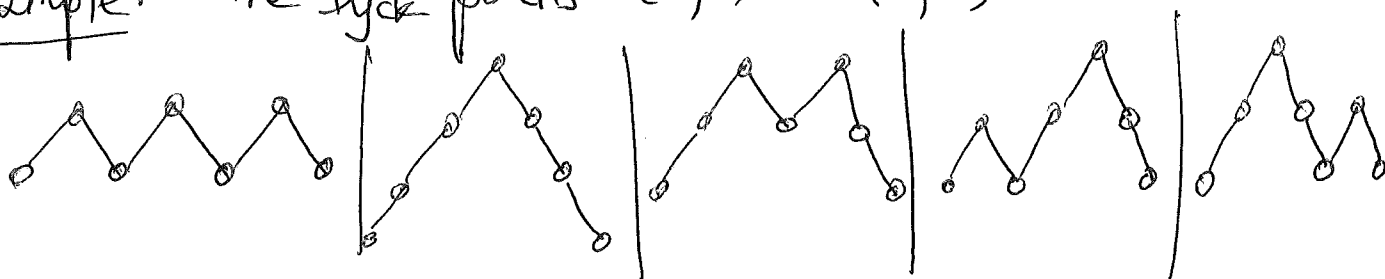


Then Dyck paths $(0, 0) \rightarrow (2n, 0)$ can be viewed
 as "mountain ranges" made of n $/$ -steps
 and n $\backslash$ -steps.

There is a simple bijection between Dyck
 words of length $2n$ and Dyck paths $(0, 0) \rightarrow (2n, 0)$:
 send each 1 to a $/$ -step,
 send each 0 to a $\backslash$ -step.

But how many are there?

Example: The Dyck paths $(0, 0) \rightarrow (6, 0)$:



So there are 5 of them.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Let } c_n &= \#(\text{Dyck paths } (0,0) \rightarrow (2n,0)) \\ &= \#(\text{Dyck words of length } 2n).\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Then, } c_1 &= 1, \\ c_2 &= 2, \\ c_3 &= 5, \\ c_4 &= 14, \\ c_n &= ?\end{aligned}$$

These numbers c_n are called Catalan numbers,
[Stanley, "Catalan numbers".]