Contributions to Discrete Mathematics

Volume 4, Number 2, Pages 89–93 ISSN 1715-0868

ANOTHER SHORT PROOF OF THE JONI-ROTA-GODSIL INTEGRAL FORMULA FOR COUNTING BIPARTITE MATCHINGS

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ABSTRACT. How many perfect matchings are contained in a given bipartite graph? An exercise in Godsil's 1993 Algebraic Combinatorics solicits proof that this question's answer is an integral involving a certain rook polynomial. Though not widely known, this result appears implicitly in Riordan's 1958 An Introduction to Combinatorial Analysis. It was stated more explicitly and proved independently by S. A. Joni and G.-C. Rota [JCTA **29** (1980), 59–73] and C. D. Godsil [Combinatorica **1** (1981), 257–262]. Another generation later, perhaps it's time both to revisit the theorem and to broaden the formula's reach.

INTRODUCTION

This note considers the relation between the number of perfect matchings of a bipartite graph G and the number of matchings of various sizes in its 'bipartite complement' \tilde{G} . These numbers are related by a surprising integral formula involving the rook polynomial of \tilde{G} . Though not widely known, this result appears implicitly in Riordan's book [10]. It was first stated more explicitly, using an integral, by Joni and Rota [8], although it was Godsil [5] who cast it in the form treated here. See also [4], which predates the later results in addressing the special case when G is a disjoint union of complete bipartite graphs. Our purpose is twofold: to present a simple, stand-alone proof and to broaden the formula's reach. Our proof, using inclusion-exclusion, is at once more direct than Godsil's and more transparent than the others'; the remarks following the statement of Theorem 2 elaborate. Readers might appreciate how this proof ties together the sign alternation in the rook polynomial's definition with that in the inclusion-exclusion formula.

Received by the editors February 10, 2009, and in revised form October 3, 2009.

²⁰⁰⁰ Mathematics Subject Classification. Primary 05A15; Secondary 05C70, 33B15.

Key words and phrases. perfect matching, rook polynomial, bipartite complement, inclusion-exclusion.

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NOTATION AND TERMINOLOGY

Given a graph G and an integer k, we denote by $\mu_G(k)$ the number of matchings in G containing exactly k edges; naturally, $\mu_G(0) = 1$. If k is half the number of vertices, i.e. if $\mu_G(k)$ counts perfect matchings, then we write $\Xi(G)$ for $\mu_G(k)$.¹ If G is a spanning subgraph of $K_{n,n}$, then the rook polynomial of G is defined by $\rho_G(t) := \sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^k \mu_G(k) t^{n-k}$ (see [6] or [10] for etymology), and the bipartite complement \tilde{G} shares its vertex set with G and has for edges all the edges of $K_{n,n}$ that are not in G. Most standard graph theory texts should furnish any omitted definitions; we generally follow [2].

Results

The formula under consideration is the conclusion of the first result.

Theorem 1 ([5, 8]). If G is a spanning subgraph of $K_{n,n}$, then

(1)
$$\Xi(G) = \int_0^\infty \rho_{\widetilde{G}}(t) e^{-t} dt.$$

In our statement of the Principle of Inclusion-Exclusion (PIE), we remind the reader of the shorthand [m] for $\{1, 2, ..., m\}$ when m is a nonnegative integer.

PIE. If $\{A_i\}_{i=1}^m$ is a family of subsets of a finite set \mathfrak{X} , then

(2)
$$\left| \mathfrak{X} \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^{m} A_i \right| = \sum_{I \subseteq [m]} (-1)^{|I|} \left| \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right|.$$

Any elementary combinatorics text, such as [3] (from which we borrowed the catchy abbreviation), is likely to present a proof of PIE.

Proof of Theorem 1. To determine $\Xi(G)$, let \mathfrak{X} denote the set of perfect matchings of $K_{n,n}$, and suppose that \widetilde{G} has $m \geq 0$ edges; say $E(\widetilde{G}) = [m]$. For $i \in E(\widetilde{G})$, let $A_i = \{M \in \mathfrak{X} : i \in M\}$. The elements of $\mathfrak{X} \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^m A_i$ are precisely the perfect matchings of G; whence $\Xi(G)$ is given by the right side of (2), which we proceed to simplify.

First note that when $I \subseteq E(\widetilde{G}) = [m]$ is not a matching in \widetilde{G} , we have $\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i = \emptyset$, so the only sets $I \subseteq [m]$ contributing nonzero terms to the sum in (2) are matchings in \widetilde{G} . For a fixed such I, we have $|\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i| = (n - |I|)!$ because the left side counts those $M \in \mathcal{X}$ containing each $i \in I$ and so effectively counts the perfect matchings of $K_{n-|I|,n-|I|}$. Now, given an integer k, with $0 \leq k \leq m$, there are $\mu_{\widetilde{G}}(k)$ matchings in \widetilde{G} of size k;

¹We chose this notation because the Greek letter Xi (Ξ) resembles a perfect matching in a graph of order six, and, conveniently enough, six is a perfect number.

this is the number of nonzero terms in (2) when |I| = k. Thus, if we sum instead over the possible sizes k of I, we obtain

$$\Xi(G) = \sum_{k=0}^{m} (-1)^k \mu_{\widetilde{G}}(k)(n-k)!.$$

Since \widetilde{G} spans $K_{n,n}$, each $\mu_{\widetilde{G}}(k)$ with k > n is zero, and since $|E(\widetilde{G})| = m$, each $\mu_{\widetilde{G}}(k)$ with k > m is zero. This implies that the "m" in the preceding identity may be replaced by "n". On introducing Euler's gamma function (see, e.g., [1]) to rewrite the factorials, we finally obtain

$$\Xi(G) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^{k} \mu_{\widetilde{G}}(k) \int_{0}^{\infty} t^{n-k} e^{-t} dt = \int_{0}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^{k} \mu_{\widetilde{G}}(k) t^{n-k} \right) e^{-t} dt,$$
which is (1).

For general (simple but not necessarily bipartite) graphs G (with n vertices), Theorem 1 has an analogue in which the rook polynomial is replaced by the matchings polynomial $\alpha_G(t) := \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} (-1)^k \mu_G(k) t^{n-2k}$, the bipartite complement is replaced by the ordinary complement \overline{G} , and the integration is with respect to a different measure.

Theorem 2 ([5]). Each graph G satisfies
$$\Xi(G) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \alpha_{\overline{G}}(t) e^{-t^2/2} dt$$
.

We mention Theorem 2 because it admits a proof closely paralleling our proof of Theorem 1. See also [9, Exercise 5.18(a)] which takes the same approach to a related result.

Remarks

As noted above, Riordan's book includes Theorem 1 implicitly. The result is a consequence of a generating-function identity, also derived using inclusion-exclusion (see [10, Theorem 2, p. 180]). Godsil's proofs of Theorems 1 and 2 (see [5, 6]) use induction leaning on the basic properties of $\rho_G(t)$ and $\alpha_G(t)$. As suggested above, Joni and Rota [8] actually proved a generalization of Theorem 1; they applied Möbius inversion to a related simplicial complex.

Theorems 1 and 2 have many applications, both in combinatorics and in the theory of orthogonal polynomials. For example, Theorem 1 "is perhaps the fundamental tool in" [7] (the quotation being from op. cit.). We present one combinatorial application below and cite [6] for further discussion and references.

AN APPLICATION TO DERANGEMENTS

Recall that a *derangement* of a set S is a permutation of S admitting no fixed points. If $|S| = n \ge 1$, then the number d_n of derangements of S can be written as $d_n = n! \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k / k!$ or described as the integer closest to n!/e. Typical derivations of these facts apply either inclusion-exclusion or generating functions (see, e.g., [3, 11]) but Godsil [6] took the following novel approach using Theorem 1.

Fix an integer $n \geq 1$ and consider the bipartite graph G obtained from $K_{n,n}$ by removing a perfect matching M from $K_{n,n}$. Notice that the perfect matchings of G correspond bijectively to the derangements of an n-set; thus, $d_n = \Xi(G)$. The bipartite complement \widetilde{G} , being induced by M, satisfies $\mu_{\widetilde{G}}(k) = \binom{n}{k}$, for $0 \leq k \leq n$, which implies that $\rho_{\widetilde{G}}(t) = (t-1)^n$. Now Theorem 1 shows that $d_n = \int_0^\infty (t-1)^n e^{-t} dt$. If we separate the integral and change variables on the first subinterval, another evaluation of the gamma function Γ presents itself:

$$d_n = \int_1^\infty (t-1)^n e^{-t} dt + \int_0^1 (t-1)^n e^{-t} dt$$

= $\int_0^\infty x^n e^{-(x+1)} dx + \int_0^1 (t-1)^n e^{-t} dt$
= $e^{-1} \Gamma(n+1) + E_n,$

where we now view the second integral as an error term E_n . It turns out that E_n doesn't contribute much to d_n ; since $e^{-t} < 1$ on the interval (0, 1), we obtain

$$|E_n| \leq \int_0^1 |(t-1)^n e^{-t}| dt < \int_0^1 (1-t)^n dt = \frac{1}{n+1}$$

This shows that for each $n \ge 1$, the error $|E_n| < 1/2$, and it follows from (3) that d_n is the integer closest to $e^{-1}\Gamma(n+1)$, i.e., to n!/e.

Acknowledgement

This note was written while the second author was on sabbatical at Université de Montréal. Many thanks to Geňa Hahn for being such a generous host.

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