# Random Maps and Permutations 

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## 1 Random Permutations

Much of this section deals with the cycles of a random permutation in $S_{n}$. Let $C_{k}, 1 \leq k \leq$ $n$, be the random variable that counts the number of $k$-cycles in a permutation. Note that $C_{1}$ is the number of fixed points.

Theorem 1. The expected number of $k$-cycles is $1 / k$.

Proof. Write $C_{k}$ as the sum of indicator random variables $\mathbf{1}_{\gamma}$, for $\gamma$ a $k$-cycle. This means that $\mathbf{1}_{\gamma}(\pi)$ is 1 if $\gamma$ is a cycle of $\pi$ and 0 otherwise. Then $E\left(C_{k}\right)=\sum_{\gamma} E\left(\mathbf{1}_{\gamma}\right)$. To determine $E\left(\mathbf{1}_{\gamma}\right)$ we count the number of permutations having $\gamma$ as a cycle. That number is $(n-k)$ !. Thus, $E\left(\mathbf{1}_{\gamma}\right)=(n-k)!/ n$ !. Now, the number of possible $\gamma$ is $n(n-1) \cdots(n-k+1) / k$, since a $k$-cycle is an ordered selection of $k$ elements from $n$ in which any of the $k$ elements can be put first. Thus, $E\left(C_{k}\right)=(n(n-1) \cdots(n-k+1) / k)((n-k)!/ n!)=1 / k$.

Corollary 2. The expected number of cycles is the harmonic number $H_{n}=1+1 / 2+\cdots+1 / n$.

Proof. The total number of cycles is the random variable $\sum C_{k}$ and its expected value is $\sum E\left(C_{k}\right)$.

An alternative proof of the corollary was outlined in the exercises fall quarter. It uses the generating function

$$
f(z)=\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left[\begin{array}{l}
n  \tag{1}\\
k
\end{array}\right] z^{k}
$$

Then the expected number of cycles is $f^{\prime}(1) / n$ !, and the derivative can be calculated using properties of the Stirling numbers.

Next we consider the distribution of $C_{i}$, that is we calculate the probability that a random permutation has $k i$-cycles. First we will deal with the case that $k=0$ and $i$ is arbitrary. For example, the case that $k=0$ and $i=1$ gives the probability of a derangement. The standard way to count derangements is to use the principal of inclusion-exclusion, and that is the way to deal with this more general problem. Let $d_{i}(n)$ be the number of permutations in $S_{n}$ with no $i$-cycles. (Hence, $d_{1}(n)$ is the number of derangements.)

Theorem 3. The number of permutations in $S_{n}$ with no $i$-cycles is

$$
d_{i}(n)=n!\sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor n / i\rfloor}(-1)^{j} \frac{1}{j!i^{j}} .
$$

Proof. For each $i$-cycle $\gamma$ define

$$
A_{\gamma}=\left\{\pi \in S_{n} \mid \gamma \text { is a cycle of } \pi\right\} .
$$

The set of permutations with no $i$-cycles is

$$
S_{n} \backslash \bigcup_{\gamma} A_{\gamma} .
$$

By PIE we have

$$
\left|S_{n} \backslash \bigcup_{\gamma} A_{\gamma}\right|=\sum_{J \subset i \text {-cycles }}(-1)^{|J|}\left|A_{J}\right|
$$

where

$$
A_{J}=\bigcap_{\gamma \in J} A_{\gamma} .
$$

Because $A_{J}$ is empty unless $J$ consists of disjoint cycles, we only need to sum over the subsets $J$ where $|J| \leq n / i$, equivalently for $|J| \leq\lfloor n / i\rfloor$. For a subset $J$ consisting of disjoint cycles and $|J|=j$ we have

$$
\left|A_{J}\right|=(n-j i)!
$$

To count the number of such $J$ we make an ordered selection of $j i$ elements from $n$ elements. This can be done in $n \stackrel{j i}{ }$ ways. The first $i$ form a cycle but since any of its $i$ elements
can be first we divide by a factor of $i$. The second group of $i$ elements form a cycle; again we divide by $i$. We do this for the $j$ groups, which gives a factor of $i^{j}$ in the denominator. But since the order of the $j$ disjoint cycles is unimportant, we also divide by $j$ !. Therefore, the number of subsets of size $j$ is

$$
\frac{n^{j i}}{j!i^{j}}
$$

and so

$$
\begin{align*}
\sum_{J}(-1)^{|J|}\left|A_{J}\right| & =\sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor n / i\rfloor}(-1)^{j} \frac{n^{j i}(n-j i)!}{j!i^{j}}  \tag{2}\\
& =n!\sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor n / i\rfloor}(-1)^{j} \frac{1}{j!i^{j}} \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

The last step follows from $n^{j i}(n-j i)!=n!$.

Now we are in a position to find the probability of exactly $k i$-cycles in a random permutation.

Theorem 4. In $S_{n}$ the number of permutations with exactly $k i$-cycles is

$$
\frac{n!}{k!i^{k}} \sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor n / i-k\rfloor}(-1)^{j} \frac{1}{j!i^{j}} .
$$

Proof. All such permutations are constructed by selecting $k i$-cycles and then selecting a permutation of the remaining elements with no $i$-cycles. The first selection of the cycles can be done in $n^{k i} /\left(k!i^{k}\right)$ ways, and the second selection can be done in $d_{i}(n-k i)$ ways. From the previous theorem we know the value for $d_{i}(n-k i)$. Multiplying the two together gives

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{n \underline{k i}}{k!i^{k}} d_{i}(n-k i) & =\frac{n \underline{k i}}{k!i^{k}}(n-k i)!\sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor(n-k i) / i\rfloor}(-1)^{j} \frac{1}{j!i^{j}}  \tag{4}\\
& =\frac{n!}{k!i^{k}} \sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor n / i-k\rfloor}(-1)^{j} \frac{1}{j!i^{j}} \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

Corollary 5. In a random permutation the probability of exactly $k i$-cycles is

$$
P\left(C_{i}=k\right)=\frac{1}{k!i^{k}} \sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor n / i-k\rfloor}(-1)^{j} \frac{1}{j!i^{j}} .
$$

Proof. Just divide the number from the theorem by $n!$.

## Corollary 6.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor n / i\rfloor} \frac{1}{k!i^{k}} \sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor n / i-k\rfloor}(-1)^{j} \frac{1}{j!i^{j}}=1 \\
\sum_{k=1}^{\lfloor n / i\rfloor} \frac{1}{(k-1)!i^{k}} \sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor n / i-k\rfloor}(-1)^{j} \frac{1}{j!i^{j}}=1 / i
\end{gathered}
$$

Proof. The first identity is that the probabilities sum to 1 . The second is that the expected number of $i$-cycles is $1 / i$.

Corollary 7. As $n \rightarrow \infty$ the distribution of the number of i-cycles approaches a Poisson distribution with parameter $\lambda=1 / i$.

Proof. We have

$$
\begin{align*}
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} P\left(C_{i}=k\right) & =\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{k!i^{k}} \sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor n / i-k\rfloor}(-1)^{j} \frac{1}{j!i^{j}}  \tag{6}\\
& =\frac{1}{k!i^{k}} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty}(-1)^{j} \frac{1}{j!i^{j}}  \tag{7}\\
& =\frac{1}{k!i^{k}} e^{-1 / i}  \tag{8}\\
& =e^{-1 / i} \frac{(1 / i)^{k}}{k!} . \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

Consider the random vector $C=\left(C_{1}, C_{2}, \ldots, C_{n}\right)$ describing the complete cycle structure of a permutation, which is the same as describing its conjugacy class in $S_{n}$. Each of the components in asymptotically Poisson, but $C$ has exactly the same distribution as the random vector $Z=\left(Z_{1}, Z_{2}, \ldots, Z_{n}\right)$ conditioned on the weighted sum $\sum_{i=0}^{n} i Z_{i}=n$, where $Z_{i}$ is Poisson with mean $1 / i$. This is not an asymptotic result, but one that holds for each $n$. These results can be found in [1].

Theorem 8. (Cauchy's Formula) If $a=\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \in \mathbf{N}^{n}$ and $\sum a_{i}=n$, then the number of permutations in $S_{n}$ with $a_{i} i$-cycles is

$$
\frac{n!}{\prod a_{i}!i^{a_{i}}} .
$$

Proof. The cycle structure specifies a form

$$
(x) \cdots(x)(x x) \cdots(x x) \cdots
$$

with $a_{1} 1$-cycles, etc. There are $n$ ! ways to place the elements $1,2, \ldots, n$ but each $\pi \in S_{n}$ with this cycle structure will occur $\prod a_{i}!i^{a_{i}}$ times.
Corollary 9. (The Law of Cycle Structures) If $a=\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \in \mathbf{N}^{n}$ and $\sum a_{i}=n$, then

$$
P(C=a)=\prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{a_{i}!}(1 / i)^{a_{i}} .
$$

Proof. This follows immediately from Cauchy's Formula.
Corollary 10.

$$
\sum_{a \in \mathbf{N}^{n}, \sum i a_{i}=n} \prod_{i} \frac{1}{a_{i}!}(1 / i)^{a_{i}}=1 .
$$

Proof. Sum the probabilities to get 1 .
Theorem 11. Suppose $Z_{i}$ is Poisson with parameter $1 / i$ and that $Z_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq n$, are independent. Define $T_{n}=\sum i Z_{i}$. If $a=\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \in \mathbf{N}^{n}$, then

$$
P\left(Z=a \mid T_{n}=n\right)=\prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{a_{i}!}(1 / i)^{a_{i}} .
$$

Proof. The definition of conditional probability gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left(Z=a \mid T_{n}=n\right)=\frac{P(Z=a)}{P\left(T_{n}=n\right)} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

The independence of the $Z_{i}$ implies that

$$
\begin{aligned}
P(Z=a) & =\prod_{i=1}^{n} P\left(Z_{i}=a_{i}\right) \\
& =\prod_{i=1}^{n} e^{-1 / i}(1 / i)^{a_{i}} \frac{1}{a_{i}!} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The denominator $P\left(T_{n}=n\right)$ is the sum over all $a \in \mathbf{N}^{n}$, with $\sum i a_{i}=n$, of the probability that $Z=a$. Since the $Z_{i}$ are independent,

$$
\begin{aligned}
P\left(T_{n}=n\right) & =\sum_{a \in \mathbf{N}^{n}, \sum_{i a_{i}=n}} \prod_{i} e^{-1 / i}(1 / i)^{a_{i}} \frac{1}{a_{i}!} \\
& =\prod_{i} e^{-1 / i}
\end{aligned}
$$

The second line follows using the corollary above on the sum of the probabilities. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left(Z=a \mid T_{n}=n\right)=\prod_{i}(1 / i)^{a_{i}} \frac{1}{a_{i}!} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now we turn to some results from the point of view of an element of $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ when a random permutation acts on it. We may as well assume the element is 1 .

Theorem 12. The probability that the cycle containing 1 has length $k$ is $1 / n$. That is, the length of the cycle containing 1 is equiprobably distributed on the integers from 1 to $n$.

Proof. We count the permutations that have 1 contained in a cycle of length $k$. There are $(n-1)^{\frac{k-1}{}}$ cycles of length $k$ containing 1 , since we simply have to choose $k-1$ distinct elements from $n-1$ possibilites to fill up the cycle. There are $(n-k)$ ! remaining possibilities for the rest of the permutation. The product of these two numbers is $(n-1)!$. Hence, the probability we seek is $(n-1)!/ n!=1 / n$.

Corollary 13. The expected length of the cycle containing 1 is $(n+1) / 2$.

Proof. The cycle lengths range from 1 to $n$ and each is equally probable.

Look at all the cycles of all the permutations in $S_{n}$. We know that there are $n!H_{n}$ cycles from Corollary 1. The total length of all these cycles is $n!n$ because the subtotal for each permutation is $n$. The average length of these cycles is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{n!n}{n!H_{n}}=\frac{n}{H_{n}} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is approximately $n / \log n$. From this point of view the average cycle length is much smaller than from the element's point of view. (This is reminiscent of the paradox of average class size. The student's average class size can be much larger than the college's average class size. Average family size is another example. The paradox is explained because large classes are counted once for each student in the class from the student point of view but only once from the college point of view.)

Exercise 14 Show the probability that 1 and 2 are in the same cycle is $1 / 2$. And show that the probability that 1,2 , and 3 are in the same cycle is $1 / 3$.

Proposition 15. Assume $m \leq n$. The probability that $1,2, \ldots, m$ are in the same cycle is $1 / m$.

Proof. First we will count the permutations that have $1,2, \ldots, m$ in the same $k$-cycle for a fixed value of $k$. Let's put 1 as the first element of the $k$-cycle. Then there are $(k-1)^{\underline{m-1}}$ choices for placing $2, \ldots, m$ in the cycle. The remaining elements can be placed in $(n-m)$ ! independent ways. The product $(n-m)!(k-1)^{\frac{m-1}{}}$ is the number of permutations with $1,2, \ldots, m$ in the same $k$-cycle. Now we sum over $k$ to get the number of permutations with $1,2, \ldots, m$ in the same cycle. Then we divide by $n$ ! to get the probability that they are in the same cycle. Let $P_{n, m}$ denote this probability. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n, m}=\frac{(n-m)!}{n!} \sum_{k=m}^{n}(k-1)^{\underline{m-1}}=\frac{1}{n^{\underline{\underline{m}}}} \sum_{k=m}^{n}(k-1)^{\underline{m-1}} . \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Some routine algebra shows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{n+1, m}=\frac{n+1-m}{n+1} P_{n, m}+\frac{1}{n+1} . \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

We know that $P_{m, m}=1 / m$ and so we only have to check that $1 / m$ is a solution to the recurrence equation. This is easy to do.

## 2 Random Maps

We consider all maps from one finite set to another, paying particular attention to the maps from one set to itself. Let $\underline{n}$ denote the finite set $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. Let $M_{n, m}$ denote the set of all maps from $\underline{n}$ to $\underline{m}$ with the equiprobable measure and let $M_{n}$ denote the self-maps from $\underline{n}$ to itself. (The self-maps are also called endo-functions by Cameron.) There are $m^{n}$ maps in $M_{n, m}$.

First consider the size of the image as an integer valued random variable on $M_{n, m}$.
Theorem 16. The probability that the image size is $k$ is

$$
\frac{k!}{m^{n}}\binom{m}{k}\left\{\begin{array}{l}
n \\
k
\end{array}\right\} .
$$

Proof. There are $\binom{m}{k}$ possible image sets. There are $\left\{\begin{array}{l}n \\ k\end{array}\right\}$ possible partitions for the inverse images of the $k$ image points. There are $k$ ! ways to assign map the inverse image sets to the image.

## Corollary 17.

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{m} \frac{k!}{m^{n}}\binom{m}{k}\left\{\begin{array}{l}
n \\
k
\end{array}\right\}=1
$$

Theorem 18. The expected image size is

$$
m\left(1-\left(\frac{m-1}{m}\right)^{n}\right)
$$

Proof. Let $Y_{j}$ be the random variable with value 1 if $j$ is in the image and 0 otherwise. Then $Y=Y_{1}+\cdots+Y_{m}$ is the image size and $E(Y)=E\left(Y_{1}\right)+\cdots+E\left(Y_{m}\right)$. The expected value of $Y_{j}$ is the probability that $j$ is in the image, which is $1-P(j \notin$ image $)$, and the probability that $j$ is not in the image is $\left(\frac{m-1}{m}\right)^{n}$.

Corollary 19.

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{m} k \frac{k!}{m^{n}}\binom{m}{k}\left\{\begin{array}{l}
n \\
k
\end{array}\right\}=m\left(1-\left(\frac{m-1}{m}\right)^{n}\right)
$$

Exercise 20 Determine the variance for the image size.

Solution. (Thanks to Robert Sawyer, via e-mail, for pointing out that an earlier solution was incorrect because it assumed that the $Y_{i}$ were independent and for supplying the correct solution below.)

For independent (more generally, uncorrelated) random variables the variance of the sum is the sum of the variances, but in general the variance of a sum is the sum of all the the pairwise covariances. Recall, that the covariance of random variables $X_{1}$ and $X_{2}$ is $\operatorname{cov}\left(X_{1}, X_{2}\right)=E\left(\left(X_{1}-E\left(X_{1}\right)\right) E\left(X_{2}-E\left(X_{2}\right)\right)\right.$, which is also $E\left(X_{1} X_{2}\right)-E\left(X_{1}\right) E\left(X_{2}\right)$. Then one can show that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{var}(Y) & =\operatorname{var}\left(\sum_{i} Y_{i}\right) \\
& =\sum_{i} \operatorname{var}\left(Y_{i}\right)+\sum_{i \neq j} \operatorname{cov}\left(Y_{i}, Y_{j}\right) \\
& =m \operatorname{var}\left(Y_{1}\right)+m(m-1) \operatorname{cov}\left(Y_{1}, Y_{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The last line comes from the fact that the variances of the $Y_{i}$ are the same as are the covariances of the $Y_{i}$ and $Y_{j}$ for $i \neq j$. Now

$$
\operatorname{var}\left(Y_{1}\right)=E\left(Y_{i}^{2}\right)-E\left(Y_{i}\right)^{2}=\left(\frac{m-1}{m}\right)^{n}-\left(\frac{m-1}{m}\right)^{2 n}
$$

but for $\operatorname{cov}\left(Y_{1}, Y_{2}\right)$ a little trick makes it easier. Use the fact that

$$
\operatorname{cov}\left(Y_{1}, Y_{2}\right)=\operatorname{cov}\left(\left(1-Y_{1}\right),\left(1-Y_{2}\right)\right)
$$

(proof left for the reader). Then $E\left(\left(1-Y_{1}\right)\left(1-Y_{2}\right)\right.$ is the probability that $Y_{1}=0$ and $Y_{2}=0$, which is the probability that both 1 and 2 are not in the image, and this probability is $\left(\frac{m-2}{m}\right)^{n}$. Thus,

$$
\operatorname{cov}\left(Y_{1}, Y_{2}\right)=\left(\frac{m-2}{m}\right)^{n}-\left(\frac{m-1}{m}\right)^{2 n}
$$

Putting these results together we get the variance of the image size

$$
\operatorname{var}(Y)=m\left\{\left(\frac{m-1}{m}\right)^{n}-\left(\frac{m-1}{m}\right)^{2 n}\right\}+m(m-1)\left\{\left(\frac{m-2}{m}\right)^{n}-\left(\frac{m-1}{m}\right)^{2 n}\right\}
$$

Exercise 21 Determine the limit of $1-\left(\frac{m-1}{m}\right)^{n}$ as $m, n \rightarrow \infty$ with $m / n=r$ fixed. This will be the asymptotic proportional image size of a random map.

## Solution.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lim \left(\frac{m-1}{m}\right)^{n} & =\lim \left(\frac{m-1}{m}\right)^{m / r} \\
& =\left(\lim \left(\frac{m-1}{m}\right)^{m}\right)^{1 / r} \\
& =e^{-1 / r}
\end{aligned}
$$

The asymptotic proportional image size is $1-e^{-1 / r}$.

Consider the random variable $Y / m$, which is the proportional image size. The variance of $Y / m$ is $m^{-2} \operatorname{var}(Y)$. In the expression for $\operatorname{var}(Y)$ in Exercise 21, the second term coming from the covariances is negative. Therefore

$$
\operatorname{var}(Y)<m\left\{\left(\frac{m-1}{m}\right)^{n}-\left(\frac{m-1}{m}\right)^{2 n}\right\}
$$

and so $m^{-2} \operatorname{var}(Y) \rightarrow 0$ as $m$ and $n$ go to infinity with a fixed ratio. Thus the probability distribution of the proportional image size becomes more and more concentrated at 1 -$e^{-1 / r}$.

Example 22 The birthday paradox involves a random map from $n$ people to $m=365$ birthdays. (Disregard February 29 and assume each birthday is equally likely.) The probability that none of the people have the same birthday is the probability that the image size is $n$, which is

$$
\frac{n!}{m^{n}}\binom{m}{n}\left\{\begin{array}{l}
n  \tag{15}\\
n
\end{array}\right\}=\frac{m^{n}}{m^{n}}
$$

As is well-known, this probability is less than $1 / 2$ when $n \geq 23$.

Question 23 There are $m$ coupons that a collector is seeking to acquire. He buys them one at a time, sight unseen. How many purchases are expected before he has them all?

Exercise 24 What is the expected number of purchases for the coupon collector when $m=2$ ?

Exercise 25 What is the probability that the coupon collector has all $m$ coupons after $n$ purchases? For small values of $m$, say between 2 and 10, determine the smallest $n$ so that this probability is greater than $1 / 2$ or greater than 0.9 .

Define the random variable $F_{i}$ on $M_{n, m}$ to be the size of the inverse image of $i$ (the fiber over $i)$. Let $F=\left(F_{1}, \ldots, F_{m}\right)$ be the random vector of all fiber sizes. Then $F_{1}+\cdots+F_{m}=n$.

Proposition 26. For $0 \leq k \leq n$,

$$
P\left(F_{i}=k\right)=\frac{\binom{n}{k}(m-1)^{n-k}}{m^{n}} .
$$

Proof. Immediate.
Theorem 27. Let $s=\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{m}\right) \in \mathbf{N}^{m}$ such that $\sum s_{i}=m$. Then

$$
P(F=s)=\frac{\binom{n}{s_{1}, s_{2}, \ldots, s_{m}}}{m^{n}} .
$$

Proof. The multinomial coefficient in the numerator is the number of ways to select $s_{i}$ elements to comprise the fiber over $i$.

Example 28 The California lottery and other state lotteries can have multiple winners because tickets can be sold with the same numbers chosen. If we assume that each possible choice of numbers is equally likely (an assumption that is not borne out in practice because people prefer certain combinations over others), then we have a random map from $n$ tickets to $m=\binom{51}{6}=18,009,460$ choices of the numbers. Suppose that 20 million tickets are sold and that you have a winning ticket. What is the probability that you are the only winner? What is the expected number of winning tickets? Can you answer these questions for general $n$ and $m$ ? (Answers: the probability you are the only winner is $((m-1) / m)^{n-1}$. If you are a winner the expected number of additional winners is $(n-1) / m$. The expected number of winners is $n / m$.)

Let the random variable $G_{i}$ be the number of fibers of size $i$. Then $\sum i G_{i}=n$ and the probability law for the vector random variable $G=\left(G_{1}, \ldots, G_{n}\right)$ is analagous to the law for the number of cycles for random permutations and the derivation runs along the same lines. First we need the number of maps with no fibers of size $i$.

Theorem 29. The number of maps in $M_{n, m}$ having no fibers of size $i$ is

$$
\sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor n / i\rfloor}(-1)^{j}(\underbrace{\left.\begin{array}{c}
n \\
i, i, \ldots, i
\end{array}\right)}_{j}\binom{m}{j} m^{n-j i} .
$$

Proof. We use the Principle of Inclusion-Exclusion. Let $\gamma$ be a subset of size $i$ in $\mathbf{N}_{n}$, that is, a possible fiber of size $i$. Let $A_{\gamma}=\left\{f \in M_{n, m} \mid \gamma\right.$ is a fiber of $\left.f\right\}$. The maps we seek to count are the complement of the union of the $A_{\gamma}$. By PIE we have

$$
\left|M_{n, m} \backslash \bigcup_{\gamma} A_{\gamma}\right|=\sum_{J \subset i \text {-sets }}(-1)^{|J|}\left|A_{J}\right|
$$

where

$$
A_{J}=\bigcap_{\gamma \in J} A_{\gamma} .
$$

Note that $A_{J}$ is empty unless the elements of $J$ are disjoint $i$-sets. Suppose that $J=$ $\left\{\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{j}\right\}$ where the $\gamma_{k}$ are disjoint. Then

$$
\left|A_{J}\right|=\binom{m}{j} j!m^{n-j i} .
$$

The number of such $J$ whose elements are $j$ disjoint $i$-sets is

$$
\frac{1}{j!}(\underbrace{\left.\begin{array}{c}
n \\
i, i, \ldots, i
\end{array}\right)}_{j}
$$

Thus,

$$
\begin{align*}
\sum_{J}(-1)^{|J|}\left|A_{J}\right| & =\sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor n / i\rfloor}(-1)^{j}\binom{m}{j} j!m^{n-j i}  \tag{16}\\
& =\sum_{j=0}^{\lfloor n / i\rfloor}(-1)^{j}(\underbrace{\left.\begin{array}{c}
n \\
i, i, \ldots, i
\end{array}\right)}_{j}\binom{m}{j} m^{n-j i} . \tag{17}
\end{align*}
$$

Theorem 30. The number of maps in $M_{n, m}$ with $k$ fibers of size $i$ is

Proof. Pick $k$ points in $\mathbf{N}_{m}$. Pick $k i$-sets in $\mathbf{N}_{n}$ to be the fibers of the points. Choose an assignment of the $i$-sets to the points. The rest is equivalent to a map from $\mathbf{N}_{n-k i}$ to $\mathbf{N}_{m}$ having no fibers of size $i$.

For self-maps of a set to itself there is a richer structure because of the possibility of iterating a map. This gives fixed points and periodic points and lots of probabilistic questions about them. Consider the number of fixed points of a random map in $M_{n}$. This is random variable which is the sum of indicator random variables, one for each $i$, whose value is 1 if $i$ is a fixed point and 0 otherwise. The following is easy to prove.

Theorem 31. The expected number of fixed points is 1 . The probability that the number of fixed points is $k$ is

$$
n^{-n}\binom{n}{k}(n-1)^{n-k}
$$

Corollary 32.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{k=0}^{n}\binom{n}{k}(n-1)^{n-k}=n^{n} \\
& \sum_{k=1}^{n} k\binom{n}{k}(n-1)^{n-k}=n^{n}
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. The first is equivalent to the sum of the probabilities of the number of fixed points being 1 . The second is equivalent to the expected value being 1.

Exercise 33 Find the variance for the number of fixed points. Answer: $(n-1) / n$.

Associated to a map $\phi$ in $M_{n}$ is a directed graph with vertex set $\underline{n}$ and an edge going from $i$ to $j$ if $\phi(i)=j$. This graph breaks up into connected components. Each component consists of a cycle with trees attached. When $\phi$ is a permutation the components are just the cycles and there are no attached trees, so we can regard the components as a natural generalization of the cycles of a permutation. As $\phi$ is repeatedly iterated (composed with itself) the image of $\phi^{m}$ eventually settles down and does not change and this image is the union of the cycles in the associated graph. Let us call this set the core of $\phi$. The restriction of $\phi$ to its core is a permutation on the core.

Theorem 34. The expected size of the core is

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{n^{\underline{k}}}{n^{k}} .
$$

Proof. Write the core size as a sum of indicator random variables $\sum_{i}^{n} X_{i}$ with $X_{i}=1$ if $i$ is in the core of the map and 0 otherwise. Then, $E\left(\sum_{i}^{n} X_{i}\right)=\sum_{i}^{n} E\left(X_{i}\right)$, but the $X_{i}$ are identically distributed. Therefore, $E\left(\sum_{i}^{n} X_{i}\right)=n E\left(X_{1}\right)$.

The probability that 1 is in a $k$-cycle is

$$
\left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)\left(\frac{n-2}{n}\right) \cdots\left(\frac{n-k+1}{n}\right)\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)
$$

which is equal to $n^{\underline{k}} / n^{k+1}$. Summing this over $k$ from 1 to $n$, we get

$$
E\left(X_{1}\right)=\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{n^{\underline{k}}}{n^{k+1}} .
$$

The expected core size is $n$ times this, completing the proof.

Question 35 What is the asymptotic behavior of the expected core size as $n$ goes to infinity?

Theorem 36. The expected core size is asymptotic to $\sqrt{\frac{\pi n}{2}}$.

Proof. From the previous theorem we have the expected core size. Then,

$$
\begin{align*}
\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{n^{\underline{k}}}{n^{k}} & =\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{n!}{(n-k)!n^{k}}  \tag{18}\\
& =n!\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{k!n^{n-k}}  \tag{19}\\
& =\frac{n!}{n^{n}} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{n^{k}}{k!} \tag{20}
\end{align*}
$$

For the sum we notice that $e^{-n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} n^{k} / k$ ! is probability that a Poisson random variable with parameter $n$ has value less than $n$. However, such a random variable has the same distribution as a sum of $n$ independent Poisson random variables with parameter 1. The Central Limit Theorem shows that the distribution of the average of a sum of $n$ independent Poisson random variables with parameter 1 approaches a normal distribution with mean 1 . Our random variable is just the sum or $n$ times the average and so the probability that it is less than $n$ has a limit of $1 / 2$. Therefore, $\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} n^{k} / k$ ! is asymptotic to $e^{n} / 2$. By Stirling's Formula

$$
n!\sim \sqrt{2 \pi n}\left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^{n}
$$

and combining these asymptotics gives us the result.

Question 37 Is there a limiting distribution for the core size?

Because the expected core size is asymptotic to $\sqrt{\pi n / 2}$ we should divide the core size random variable by $\sqrt{n}$ and consider its distribution in the limit. For that we need to find the probability that the core size is $k$. Count the number of maps in $M_{n}$ with core size $k$ by first choosing $k$ elements to be the core. The map is a permutation on these $k$ elements, which can be done in $\binom{n}{k} k$ ! ways. The remaining $n-k$ elements must be attached to the core as a forest of labeled rooted trees with the core elements as the roots. Cayley's formula for this gives the count of $k n^{n-k-1}$ [J. Spencer, Asymptopia, §6.5]. Thus, the number of maps with core size $k$ is

$$
\binom{n}{k} k!k n^{n-k-1}=k n^{\underline{k}} n^{n-k-1}
$$

Theorem 38. The probability that a random map in $M_{n}$ has core size $k$ is

$$
\frac{k}{n}\left(1-\frac{1}{n}\right)\left(1-\frac{2}{n}\right) \cdots\left(1-\frac{k-1}{n}\right)
$$

Proof. Divide the number of maps with core size $k$ by $n^{n}$ and simplify.
Theorem 39. As $n \rightarrow \infty$ the distribution of the core size divided by $\sqrt{n}$ approaches the Rayleigh distribution with probability density function $x e^{-x^{2} / 2}$.

Proof. Let $p_{n, k}$ be the probability of core size $k$ given in Theorem 38. Imagine the plot of the distribution of the core size as a histogram with height $p_{n, k}$ between $k$ and $k+1$. Now compress the histogram by dividing the horizontal scale by $\sqrt{n}$. And multiply the heights by $\sqrt{n}$ so that the total area remains 1 . That means we want to determine the limit of $\sqrt{n} p_{n, k}=$ as $n, k \rightarrow \infty$ and $k / \sqrt{n} \rightarrow x$. In the product

$$
\sqrt{n} p_{n, k}=\frac{k}{\sqrt{n}}\left(1-\frac{1}{n}\right)\left(1-\frac{2}{n}\right) \cdots\left(1-\frac{k-1}{n}\right)
$$

the first factor $k / \sqrt{n}$ goes to $x$, and so we focus on the other factors. The $\log$ of the remaining product is the sum of the logs, which we expand as power series:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \log \left(1-\frac{j}{n}\right) & =-\sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i}\left(\frac{j}{n}\right)^{i} \\
& =-\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1}\left(\frac{j}{n}\right)^{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

Now for a fixed $i$ the inner sum can be rewritten

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{k-1}\left(\frac{j}{n}\right)^{i}=\frac{1}{(\sqrt{n})^{i-1}} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1}\left(\frac{j}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^{i} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}
$$

and the sum is a lower Riemann sum for $\int_{0}^{x} t^{i} d t$, where $x=k / \sqrt{n}$. For $i=1$ the sum approaches $\int_{0}^{x} t d t=x^{2} / 2$. For $i \geq 2$ each of the sums is bounded above by $\left(1 / \sqrt{n}^{i-1}\right) x^{i} /(i+$ 1 ) and so it is bounded above by the value of the integral, namely, $x^{i} /(i+1)$. Therefore, the sum over $i \geq 2$ can be bounded by something that goes to 0 ,

$$
\sum_{i=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1}\left(\frac{j}{n}\right)^{i}<\sum_{i=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i(i+1)} \frac{1}{(\sqrt{n})^{i-1}} x^{i+1}=\sum_{i=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i(i+1)}\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^{i-1} x^{2} .
$$

The series on the right goes to 0 by comparison with the geometric series having ratio $x / \sqrt{n}$. This shows that $\log \sqrt{n} p_{n, k}$ approaches $\log x-x^{2} / 2$ as $n, k \rightarrow \infty$ such that $k / \sqrt{n} \rightarrow x$, and consequently $\sqrt{n} p_{n, k}$ has the limiting value $x e^{-x^{2}}$.

Let $C_{k}$ be the random variable that counts the number of $k$-cycles of a random map. Thus, $C_{k}$ counts the number of components consisting of a $k$-cycle with zero or more attached trees.

Theorem 40. The expected number of $k$-cycles is

$$
\frac{1}{k} \frac{n^{\underline{k}}}{n^{k}}
$$

As $n \rightarrow \infty$ the expected number of $k$-cycles goes to $1 / k$.

Proof. For $\gamma$ a $k$-cycle let $\mathbf{1}_{\gamma}$ be the indicator random variable that takes on the value 1 if $\gamma$ is a cycle of the random map and 0 otherwise. Then $C_{k}=\sum_{\gamma} \mathbf{1}_{\gamma}$ and $E\left(C_{k}\right)=\sum_{\gamma} E\left(\mathbf{1}_{\gamma}\right)$. The number of maps that have $\gamma$ as a $k$-cycle is $n^{n-k}$ since each of the elements not in $\gamma$ can be mapped anywhere. Thus, $E\left(\mathbf{1}_{\gamma}\right)=n^{n-k} / n^{n}=n^{-k}$, while the number of $k$-cycles is $n \frac{k}{k} / k$. The product of these is the expected value of $C_{k}$. The limit as $n$ goes to infinity is straightforward keeping in mind that $k$ is fixed.

Question 41 Does the distribution of $C_{k}$ become Poisson with mean $1 / k$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ ? I suspect that is the case but have not worked it out except for $k=1$.

Theorem 42. As $n \rightarrow \infty$ the distribution of $C_{1}$ approaches the distribution of a Poisson random variable with mean 1.

Proof. The number of maps with $j$ fixed points is $\binom{n}{j}(n-1)^{n-j}$ since we choose a $j$-set of fixed points and then map each of the remaining points to anything but themselves. Dividing by $n^{n}$ we get

$$
\begin{align*}
P\left(C_{1}=j\right) & =\binom{n}{j}(n-1)^{n-j} n^{-n}  \tag{21}\\
& =\frac{n!}{j!(n-j)!}(n-1)^{-j}\left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)^{n} \tag{22}
\end{align*}
$$

But

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!}{(n-j)!}(n-1)^{-j}=1 \text { and } \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)^{n}=\frac{1}{e}
$$

and so

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} P\left(C_{1}=j\right)=\frac{1}{j!} \frac{1}{e} \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 43. The expected number of components is

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

Proof. The number of components (which is the same as the number of cycles) is the random variable $C=\sum C_{k}$, and therefore

$$
\begin{align*}
E(C) & =\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k} \frac{n^{\underline{k}}}{n^{k}}  \tag{24}\\
& =\frac{n!}{n^{n}} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k} \frac{n^{n-k}}{(n-k)!}  \tag{25}\\
& =\frac{n!}{n^{n}} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{n-k} \frac{n^{n-k}}{k!} \tag{26}
\end{align*}
$$

where the last step is re-indexing with $k$ in place of $n-k$.

Question 44 What is the asymptotic nature of $E(C)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ ?

Notice that the expression is quite similar to that for the core size, but there is an extra wrinkle that causes difficulty. One may proceed heuristically to conjecture the first order asymptotics as follows. The expected core size is asymptotic to $\sqrt{\pi n / 2}$ and we know that for a random permutation on an $n$-set the expected number of cycles is asymptotic to $\log n$. So we proceed under the assumption that a random map is like a random permutation on its core, and so it should have about $\log \sqrt{\pi n / 2}$ cycles. But $\log \sqrt{\pi n / 2}=\frac{1}{2}(\log (\pi n)-\log 2)$, which is asymptotic to $\frac{1}{2} \log (\pi n)=\frac{1}{2}(\log \pi+\log n)$, which is asymptotic to $(\log n) / 2$. This heuristic reasoning does give the correct first term. In 1954 Kruskal [4] proved that the expected number of components is $\frac{1}{2}(\log 2 n+\gamma)+o(1)$, where $\gamma$ is Euler's constant. (n.b. In [3], it is claimed incorrectly that $E(C)$ is asymptotic to $\log n$.)

Here is some numerical evidence to back up the heuristic reasoning.

| $n$ | $E(C)$ | $\log n$ | $E(C) / \log n$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 500 | 3.761 | 6.215 | 0.629 |
| 1000 | 4.102 | 6.908 | 0.594 |
| 10000 | 5.245 | 9.210 | 0.569 |

Question 45 What is the probability distribution for the size of the components?

Question 46 What is the expected size of the components?

We will focus on a particular element, say 1 , and consider what happens to it with the selection of a random map. The orbit of $i$ under the map $f$ is the set of iterates of $i$, namely $\{i, f(i), f(f(i)), \ldots\}$.

Theorem 47. The probability that the orbit of 1 has size $k$ is

$$
\frac{k}{n^{k}}(n-1) \frac{k-1}{}
$$

Proof. The orbit of 1 must be a set $\left\{1, x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{k-1}\right\}$ of distinct elements and then $x_{k}$ must be one of the $k$ elements in the orbit set. Thus, there are $n-1$ choices for $x_{1}, n-2$ choices for $x_{2}$, etc. and $n-k-1$ choices for $x_{k-1}$. Finally, there are $k$ choices for $x_{k}$. The remaining $n-k$ elements can be mapped to any of the $n$ elements. The number of maps having 1 in an orbit of size $k$ is then $(n-1) \frac{k-1}{} k n^{n-k}$. Dividing this by $n^{n}$ gives the result.

Theorem 48. The probability that the orbit of 1 has size $k$ and the unique cycle in the orbit has size $j$ is

$$
\frac{(n-1)^{k-1}}{n^{k}}
$$

Note that this is independent of $j$.

Proof. Again we count the maps with this property. The orbit of 1 must be $\left\{1, x_{2}, x_{3}, \ldots, x_{k-1}\right\}$ and $x_{k}=x_{k-j}$. The remaining $n-k$ elements can be mapped arbitrarily. There are $(n-1)(n-2) \cdots(n-k+1) n^{n-k}$ such maps. Dividing by $n^{n}$ gives us the probability.

Corollary 49. The probability that the cycle in the orbit of 1 has size $j$ is

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

Proof. Sum over $k$, realizing that the orbit size must be at least as large as the cycle size.

Corollary 50. The probability that 1 is $l$ steps from the cycle is

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{n-l} \frac{(n-1)!}{(n-j-l)!n^{j+l}} .
$$

Proof. We sum over $j$ from 1 to $n-l$ the probability that the orbit of 1 has size $j+l$ and the cycle has size $l$.
Corollary 51. The expected number of steps before 1 (or any element) reaches the cycle in its component is

$$
\sum_{l=1}^{n-1} l \sum_{j=1}^{n-l} \frac{(n-1)!}{(n-j-l)!n^{j+l}}
$$

Proof. Obvious from the previous corollary.

Question 52 What is the asymptotic expected number of steps to the cycle as $n \rightarrow \infty$ ?

The questions about components are interesting for random graphs, too. See, for example, Appendix A of [3], which refers to [2].

## References

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