18.704 Supplementary Notes February 21, 2005

Grassmann varieties

Definition 1. Suppose that F is a field, n is a non-negative integer, and F^n is the standard n-dimensional vector space consisting of n-tuples of elements of F. For us it will generally be best to regard F^n as consisting of $n \times 1$ column vectors, so that $n \times n$ matrices can act on the left by matrix multiplication. The Grassmann variety G(k, n)(F) of k-planes in F^n is the set of all k-dimensional vector subspaces of F^n . This set is non-empty for integers k between 0 and n: $0 \le k \le n$.

Recall that G = GL(n, F) is the group of invertible $n \times n$ matrices with entries in F. There is an action of G on the Grassmann variety G(k, n)(F), defined as follows. Suppose that V is a k-dimensional subspace of F^n , so that $V \in G(k, n)(F)$. We define a new k-dimensional subspace $g \cdot V$ of F^n by

$$g \cdot V = \{g \cdot v \mid v \in V\}.$$

That is, we apply the matrix g to each of the vectors in V. It's very easy to check that $g \cdot V$ is indeed a k-dimensional subspace, and that this is an action of G on the Grassmann variety.

The Grassmann varieties ("Grassmannians" for short) are fundamental to all kinds of mathematics. When the field F is \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} , G(k,n)(F) is a manifold; it turns out to be a compact manifold of dimension k(n-k) (if $F = \mathbb{R}$) or 2k(n-k) (if $F = \mathbb{C}$). For arbitrary fields, the Grassmann variety consists of the "F-points" of a smooth algebraic variety of dimension k(n-k).

Today I want to concentrate on counting points in a Grassmann variety over a finite field, and what that has to do with GL(n).

There is one obvious k-dimensional subspace of F^n : the collection of vectors whose last n-k coordinates are all zero. This subspace has a natural identification with F^k , and I'll write it as $F^k \subset F^n$. If $g \in GL(n, F)$, then

(1)
$$g \cdot F^k = \text{span of the first } k \text{ columns of } g.$$

Now the first k columns of a matrix in GL(n, F) can be any k linearly independent vectors. (The reason is that any set of k independent vectors can be enlarged to a basis of F^n ; and the bases of F^n are precisely the sets of columns of invertible matrices.) In the language of group actions, this means

$$GL(n, F) \cdot F^k = G(k, n)(F).$$

That is, the Grassmann variety is a single orbit of GL(n, F). (The mathematical word is *transitive*: the action of GL(n, F) on G(k, n)(F) is transitive.)

Because of this fact, it is interesting to understand the isotropy group

(2)
$$GL(n,F)_{F^k} = \{g \in GL(n,F) \mid g \cdot F^k = F^k\}.$$

Proposition 1. Suppose $0 \le k \le n$ are integers. Then the isotropy group at F^k for the action of GL(n, F) on the Grassmann variety G(k, n)(F) is

$$\begin{aligned} GL(n,F)_{F^k} &= \left\{ g = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & C \end{pmatrix} \mid A \in GL(k,F), \\ C \in GL(n-k,F), \quad B \in M(k \times (n-k),F)) \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

Here $M(p \times q, F)$ is the collection of all $p \times q$ matrices with entries in F, and 0 is the $(n-k) \times k$ zero matrix.

Proof. Because $g \cdot F^k$ is a k-dimensional subspace of F^n (for any $g \in GL(n, F)$), it is equal to F^k if and only if it is *contained* in F^k . We may therefore rewrite (2) as

(3)
$$GL(n,F)_{F^k} = \{g \in GL(n,F) \mid g \cdot F^k \subset F^k\}.$$

A vector $v \in F^n$ belongs to F^k if and only if its last n - k coordinates are zero. In light of (1), we may therefore write (3) as

$$(4) \quad GL(n,F)_{F^k} = \left\{ g \in GL(n,F) \mid g = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ 0 & C \end{pmatrix}, A \in M(k \times k,F), \\ C \in M((n-k) \times (n-k),F), \quad B \in M(k \times (n-k),F)) \right\}.$$

For a matrix g as in (4), det $g = (\det A)(\det C)$; so g belongs to GL(n, F) if and only if both $A \in GL(k, F)$ and $C \in GL(n-k, F)$. \Box

Proposition 2. Suppose \mathbb{F}_q is a finite field with q elements. Then

$$\begin{aligned} |GL(n,\mathbb{F}_q)| &= |G(k,n)(\mathbb{F}_q)| \cdot |GL(n,\mathbb{F}_q)_{\mathbb{F}_q^k}| \\ &= |G(k,n)(\mathbb{F}_q)| \cdot |GL(k,\mathbb{F}_q)| \cdot q^{k(n-k)} \cdot |GL(n-k,\mathbb{F}_q)|. \end{aligned}$$

Equivalently,

$$G(k,n)(\mathbb{F}_q)| = \frac{|GL(n,\mathbb{F}_q)|}{q^{k(n-k)} \cdot |GL(k,\mathbb{F}_q)| \cdot |GL(n-k,\mathbb{F}_q)|}.$$

The last three factors in the second formula count the elements of $GL(n, \mathbb{F}_q)_{\mathbb{F}_q^k}$, as described in Proposition 1; they are the number of choices for the matrices A, B, and C respectively. The entire formula is therefore our basic formula for counting points in an orbit of a group action.

Last week Gabe Cunningham proved a formula for the number of elements in the general linear group over a finite field:

(5)
$$|GL(n, \mathbb{F}_q)| = q^{n(n-1)/2} \prod_{k=1}^n (q^k - 1).$$

It's often useful to rewrite this a bit, by removing the common factor of q-1 from each of the last n factors:

$$|GL(n, \mathbb{F}_q)| = q^{n(n-1)/2} (q-q)^n \prod_{k=1}^n \frac{q^k - 1}{q-1}$$

)
$$= q^{n(n-1)/2} (q-1)^n \prod_{k=1}^n (q^{k-1} + q^{k-2} + \dots + 1)$$

$$f: X \to \mathbb{Z}.$$

A q-analogue of f is a function

$$f_q: S \to \mathbb{Z}[q]$$

taking values in polynomials in q, with the property that $f_1 = f$; that is, that the value at q = 1 of the polynomial $f_q(s)$ is equal to the integer f(s).

It's clear that a q-analogue of f is not unique. (There is always a stupid qanalogue, in which $f_q(s)$ is the constant polynomial f(s).) But some q-analogues arise often enough to have names of their own; they're called "the" q-analogue, even though there are others. The q-analogue of n (defined for every non-negative integer n) is

$$[n]_q = \sum_{j=1}^n q^{n-j} = q^{n-1} + q^{n-2} + \dots + 1 = \frac{q^n - 1}{q - 1}.$$

We use the convention that an empty sum is zero, so

$$[0]_{q} = 0$$

$$[1]_{q} = 1$$

$$[2]_{q} = q + 1$$

$$[3]_{q} = q^{2} + q + 1$$

The *q*-analogue of n! (defined for every non-negative n is

$$[n!]_q = \prod_{k=1}^n [n]_q = \prod_{k=1}^n \frac{q^n - 1}{q - 1}.$$

We use the convention that an empty product is 1 (why is that reasonable?), so that $[0!]_q = 1$. For example,

$$[3!]_q = 1(q+1)(q^2+q+1) = q^3 + 2q^2 + 2q + 1.$$

Using these factorials, we can formally define the *q*-analogue of $\binom{n}{k}$ as

$$\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q = \frac{[n!]_q}{[k!]_q[(n-k)!]_q}$$

It isn't clear from this definition that this function of n and q is actually a polynomial (with integer coefficients) in q. We'll see that eventually. One reason that this definition is interesting is Proposition 4 below.

You can read much more about q-analogues in *Quantum Calculus*, by Victor Kac and Pokman Cheung.

Using Definition 2, we can rewrite the formula (6) for the cardinality of $GL(n, \mathbb{F}_q)$ as

(7)
$$|GL(n, \mathbb{F}_q)| = q^{n(n-1)/2} (q-1)^n [n!]_q.$$

This is a q-analogue of 1, times a q-analogue of 0, times "the" q-analogue of n!. By ignoring the zero part, we get a really important metamathematical idea:

(8)
$$GL(n, \mathbb{F}_q)$$
 is a q-analogue of the symmetric group S_n .

This isn't mathematics: there's no definition of a q-analogue of a group along the lines of Definition 2. But it's a useful idea to keep in mind. Ideas that tell you something about $GL(n, \mathbb{F}_q)$ may often tell you something about S_n , and vice versa.

Now we can plug (7) (three times, for n and k and n-k) into the second formula of Proposition 2, and get

Proposition 3. Suppose \mathbb{F}_q is a finite field with q elements. Then

$$|G(k,n)(\mathbb{F}_q)| = \frac{[n!]_q}{[k!]_q[(n-k)!]_q} = \begin{bmatrix} n\\k \end{bmatrix}_q.$$

That is, the number of k-dimensional subspaces of \mathbb{F}_q^n is equal to the q-binomial

coefficient $\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_{q}$.

To prove this, one has to check that the powers of (q-1) all cancel (easy), and that the powers of q all cancel (straightforward but not quite as easy; I usually have to do it a couple of times before I get the signs right). I'll omit the details.

The metamathematical idea here is

(9)
$$G(k,n)(\mathbb{F}_q)$$
 is a q-analogue of k-element subsets of $\{1,\ldots,n\}$.

This statement has a bit more concrete content than (8): the cardinality of the first set is indeed a q-analogue of the cardinality of the second, according to Proposition 3.

There are many cheerful facts about binomial coefficients, and many of these facts have q-analogues. Here is the most fundamental.

Proposition 4. Suppose 0 < k < n are strictly positive integers. Then

$$\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q = q^{n-k} \begin{bmatrix} n-1 \\ k-1 \end{bmatrix}_q + \begin{bmatrix} n-1 \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} n-1 \\ k-1 \end{bmatrix}_q + q^k \begin{bmatrix} n-1 \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q.$$

Notice that the two formulas here are *not* the same when q is not 1. If I get ambitious I'll prove this formula in the seminar on Tuesday, but I'm too lazy to write the proof here.

The formula in Proposition 4 implies (by induction on n) that the q-binomial coefficient is indeed a polynomial in q, with non-negative integer coefficients. The next Proposition more or less gives an interpretation for the coefficients: it says that they solve a certain counting problem.

Proposition 4. Suppose $0 \le k \le n$ are non-negative integers. Write

$$N = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}.$$

Fix a k-element subset

$$S = \{i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k\} \subset N.$$

We attach to S a non-negative integer

$$l(S) = \sum_{j=1}^{k} number of elements of N - S strictly larger than i_k .$$

- (1) We have $l(S) \leq k(n-k)$, with equality if and only if $S = \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$.
- (2) We have $l(S) \ge 0$, with equality if and only if $S = \{n-k+1, n-k+2, \dots, n\}$.
- (3) The q-binomial coefficient satisfies

$$\begin{bmatrix} n\\k \end{bmatrix}_q = \sum_{S \subset N, |S|=k} q^{l(S)}.$$

Consequently the q-binomial coefficient is a polynomial with non-negative coefficients, of degree k(n-k), with constant and leading coefficients both equal to 1.

You should be able to see (1) and (2) pretty easily; the tricky part is (3). Again I'll hope to prove this in the seminar.