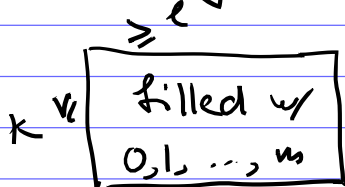


last time: q -binom. coeff.

Plane partitions

$$\left[\begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right]_q = \sum_{\lambda \subseteq k \times (n-k)} q^{|\lambda|}$$

Fix integers $k, \ell, m \geq 1$.



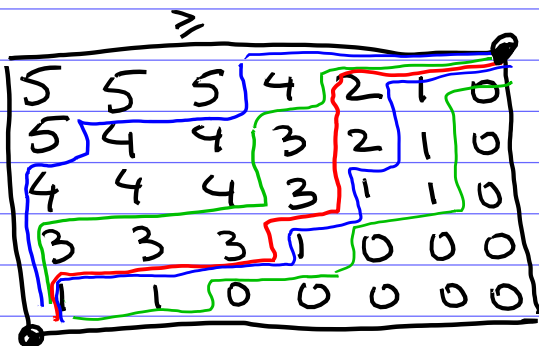
$k \times \ell$ rectangular array
with entries $\in \{0, 1, \dots, m\}$

weakly decreasing
in rows & columns

Example

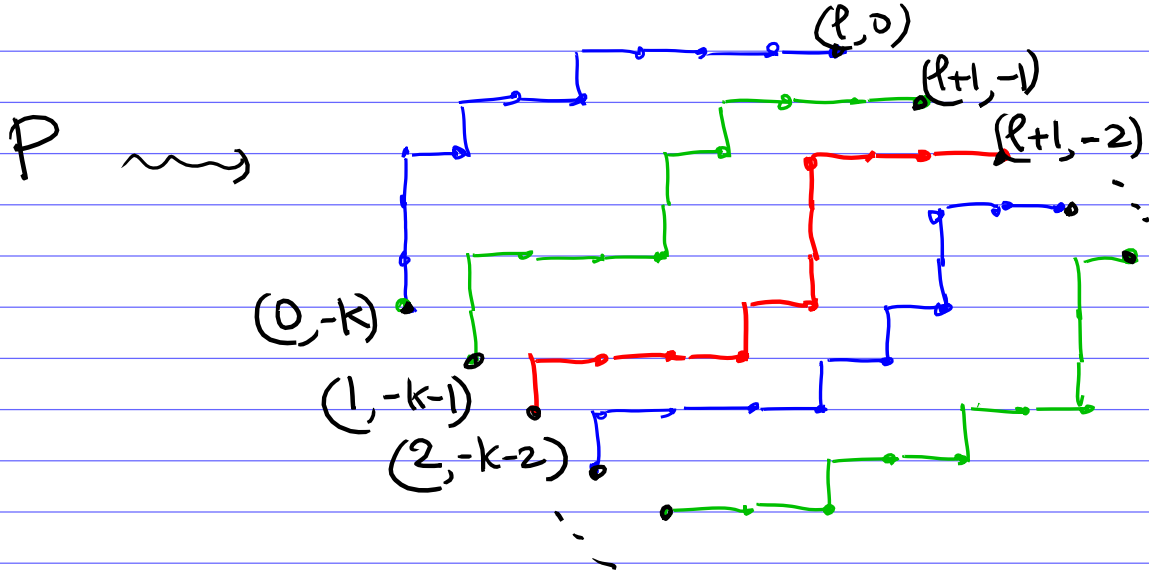
$k=5$
 $\ell=7$
 $m=5$

$P =$



m lattice paths from
lower left to upper right corners
that separate entries i & $i+1$

- For $i=1, 2, \dots, m$, shift
the i^{th} path $i-1$ steps in the
SE direction (i.e. shift by $(i-1, i-1)$)



We obtain a bijection between
plane partitions P &
collections of m non-crossing
lattice paths.

Lindström's Lemma \Rightarrow

plane partitions of shape $k \times l$
with entries $\in \{0, 1, \dots, m\}$

$$PP_{k,l,m} = \det \left(\binom{k+l}{k+i-j} \right)_{i,j=1}^m$$

Example $k=2$, $l=4$, $m=3$

$$\begin{vmatrix} \binom{5}{2} & \binom{5}{1} & \binom{5}{0} \\ \binom{5}{3} & \binom{5}{2} & \binom{5}{1} \\ \binom{5}{4} & \binom{5}{3} & \binom{5}{2} \end{vmatrix} = PP_{2,4,3}$$

Notice
$$\begin{pmatrix} k+l \\ k+i-j \end{pmatrix} = e_{k+i-j} \underbrace{(1 \dots 1)}_{k+l}$$

The above det is Jacobi-Trudi formula for $S_{k \times m}$ specialized at $(x_1, x_2, \dots) = (\underbrace{1, \dots, 1}_{k+l}, 0, 0, \dots)$

So
$$PP_{k,e,m} = S_{k \times m} \underbrace{(1, \dots, 1)}_{k+l}$$

Also
$$PP_{k,e,m} = S_{e \times m} \underbrace{(1, \dots, 1)}_{k+l}$$

$$PP_{k,e,m} = PP_{e,k,m}$$

Is there a better explanation of these equalities?

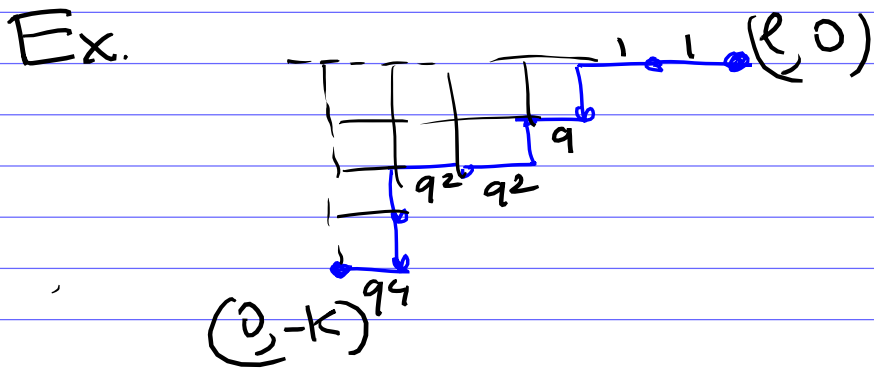
For a plane partition P ,

let $s(P) = \sum$ entries of P .

How about the generating function

$$PP_{k,e,m}(q) = \sum_{\substack{\text{plane} \\ \text{part.} \\ P}} q^{s(P)}$$

Let us assign weights 1
to vert. edges and weight
 q^j to horizontal edges
 $(i, j) - (i+1, j)$



Then $\sum_{\text{paths from } (0, -k) \text{ to } (l, 0)}$ wt(P) = $\sum_{\text{paths}} q^{\text{area above the path}}$

$$= \sum_{\lambda \in k \times l} q^{|\lambda|} = \begin{bmatrix} k+l \\ k \end{bmatrix} q$$

plane partition

$P \rightsquigarrow$ non-crossing paths

P_1, P_2, \dots, P_m

$$\prod_{i=1}^m \text{weight}(P_i) = q^{s(P)} \cdot q^{l \cdot \frac{m(m-1)}{2}}$$

extra factor
because we shift
the paths

Lindström's Lemma \Rightarrow

$$P_{k, \ell, m}(q) =$$

$$= q^{-\ell \cdot m(m-1)/2} \det \left(q^{(i-1)(\ell-j+i)} \begin{bmatrix} k+\ell \\ k+i-j \end{bmatrix} \right)_{i,j=1}^m$$

\uparrow extra factors coming from shifting the paths

We can get more explicit formulas.

Theorem (MacMahon, 1896)

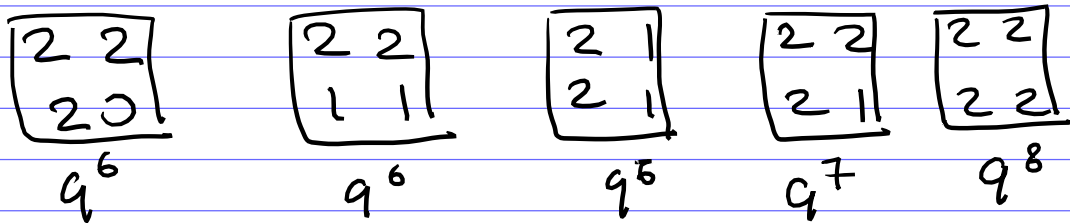
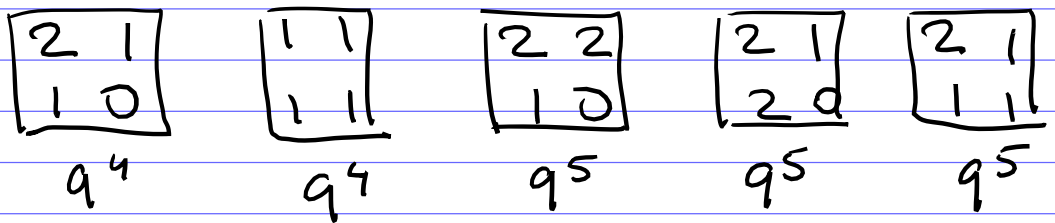
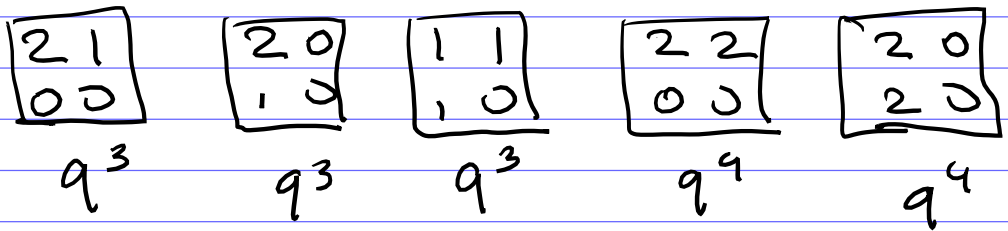
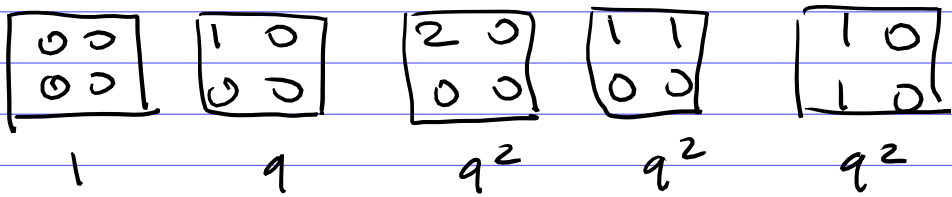
$$PP_{k, \ell, m}(q) = \prod_{a=1}^k \prod_{b=1}^{\ell} \prod_{c=1}^m \frac{[a+b+c-1]_q}{[a+b+c-2]_q}$$

\nearrow gen. function for plane partitions of shape $k \times \ell$ with entries in $\{0, 1, \dots, m\}$

In particular,
 $\#$ such plane partitions is

$$\prod_{a=1}^k \prod_{b=1}^{\ell} \prod_{c=1}^m \frac{a+b+c-1}{a+b+c-2}$$

Example $k = l = m = 2$



$$PP_{3,2,2}(q) = 1 + q + 3q^2 + 3q^3 + 4q^4 + 3q^5 + 3q^6 + q^7 + q^8 =$$

MacMahon

$$\downarrow = \frac{[2]_q}{[1]_q} \frac{[3]_q}{[2]_q} \frac{[3]_q}{[2]_q} \frac{[3]_q}{[2]_q} \frac{[4]_q}{[3]_q} \frac{[4]_q}{[3]_q} \frac{[4]_q}{[3]_q} \frac{[5]_q}{[4]_q}$$

$$= \frac{(1+q+q^2+q^3)^2 \cdot (1+q+q^2+q^3+q^4)}{(1+q)^2} =$$

$$= (1+q^2)^2 (1+q+q^2+q^3+q^4)$$

such plane partitions = 20.

Observation. The answer is symmetric in k, l, m .

Why? Symmetry $k \leftrightarrow l$ is clear.

(transposition of p.p.)

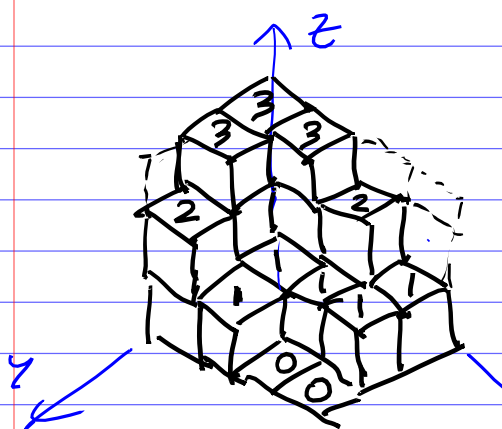
Plane partitions can be viewed as "3-dimensional Young diagrams" that fit inside the $k \times l \times m$ box

Example

$P =$

3	3	2	1
3	1	1	1
2	1	0	0

* For each box of P filled with "a" put a little cubes above it.



3 dim Young diagrams

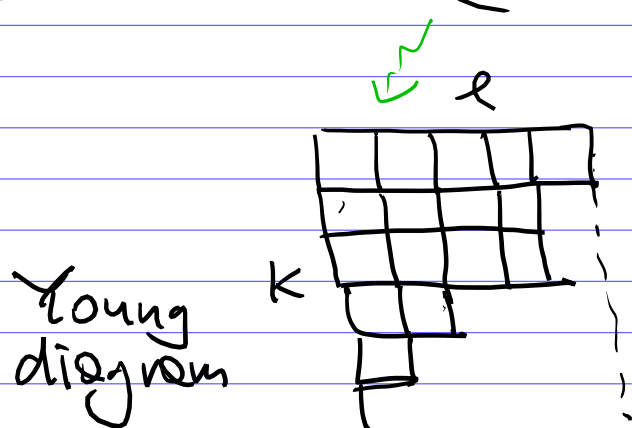
3D view of a plane partition

$s(P) = \#$ little cubes in this "Young diagram"

This explains the symmetry between k, l, m .

This is a 3D version of how usual partitions can be viewed as usual Young diagrams

Ex. $\lambda = (5, 4, 4, 2, 1, 0)$



Young diagram

partitions with $\leq k$ parts & entries $\leq e$

↓ bij.
Young diagrams $\subseteq k \times e$ rectangle

1-dim case:

$$1 + q + \dots + q^{h-1} = [h]_q$$

2-dim case

$$\sum_{\lambda \subseteq k \times e} q^{|\lambda|} = \begin{bmatrix} k+e \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q$$

3-dim case:

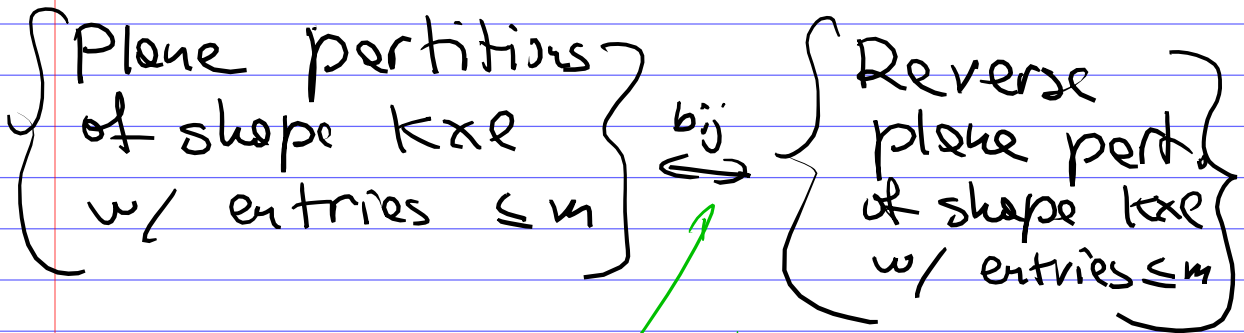
$$\sum_{P \subseteq k \times e \times e} q^{s(P)} = \text{MacMahon's Formula}$$

Q: Is there a nice product formula for higher dimensional Young diagrams?

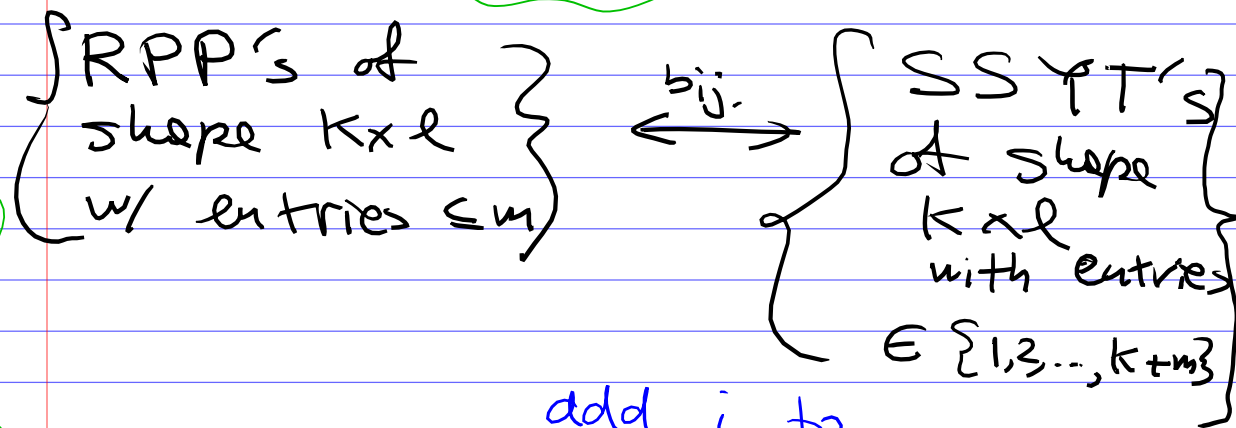
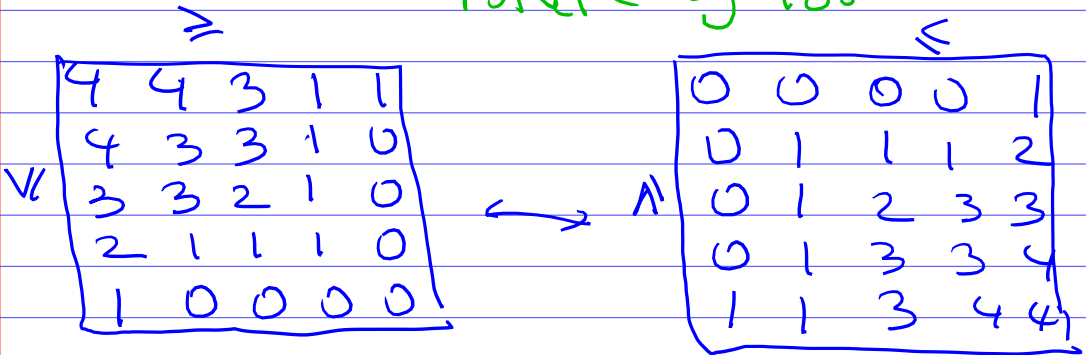
A: No. for $\text{dim} > 3$,

How to prove MacMahon's formula?

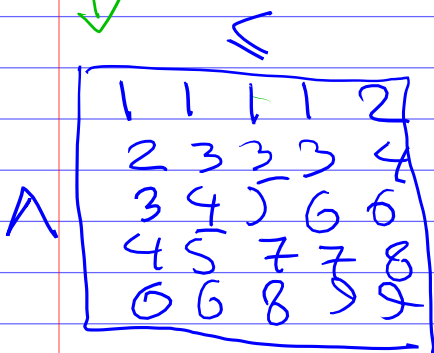
- Deduce from the determinantal formula
- Deduce from Stanley's hook-content formula



rotate by 180°



add i to
all entries
in i th row
for $i=1, \dots, k$



SSYT filled
with $1, 2, \dots, k+m$

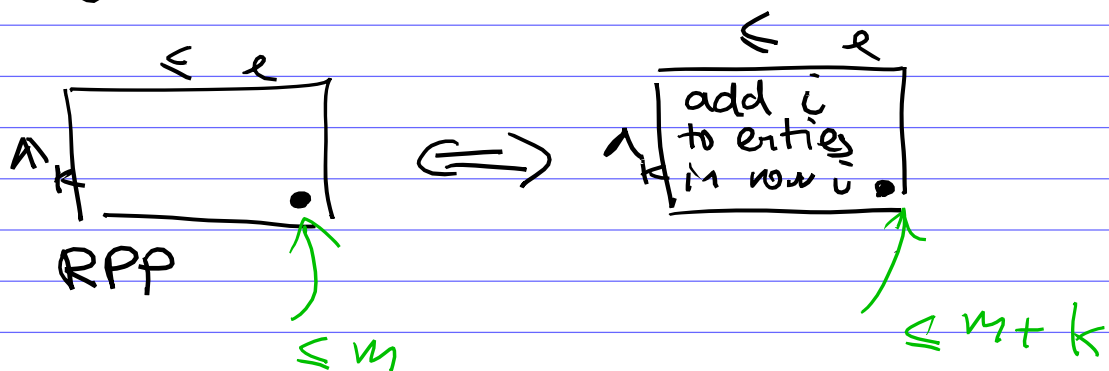
Note: This correspondence between RPP's with bounded entries and SSYT's with bounded entries works only for rectangular shapes

Indeed, for RPP's & SSYT's of rectangular shape, we have

all entries are bounded by some number



the one entry in the bottom left corner is bounded by this number



Now apply Stanley's hook-content formula

$$S_\lambda(1, q, \dots, q^{n-1}) = q^{m(\lambda)} \prod_{x \in \lambda} \frac{[n+c(x)]_q}{[h(x)]_q}$$

context
 ↓
 hook lengths

For $\lambda = k \times l$, $n = m+k$

We obtain

$$\begin{aligned} PP_{k \times l, m}(q) &= q^{-m(\lambda)} S_{k \times l}(1, q, \dots, q^{m+k-1}) \\ &= \prod_{x \in k \times l} \frac{[m+k+c(x)]_q}{[h(x)]_q}, \end{aligned}$$

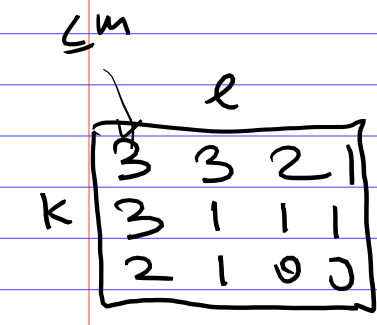
which is equivalent to MacMahon's formula. \square

Remark We have a nice product formula for # SSYT's with bounded entries for any slope λ .

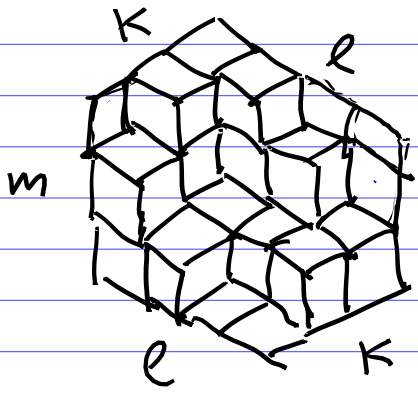
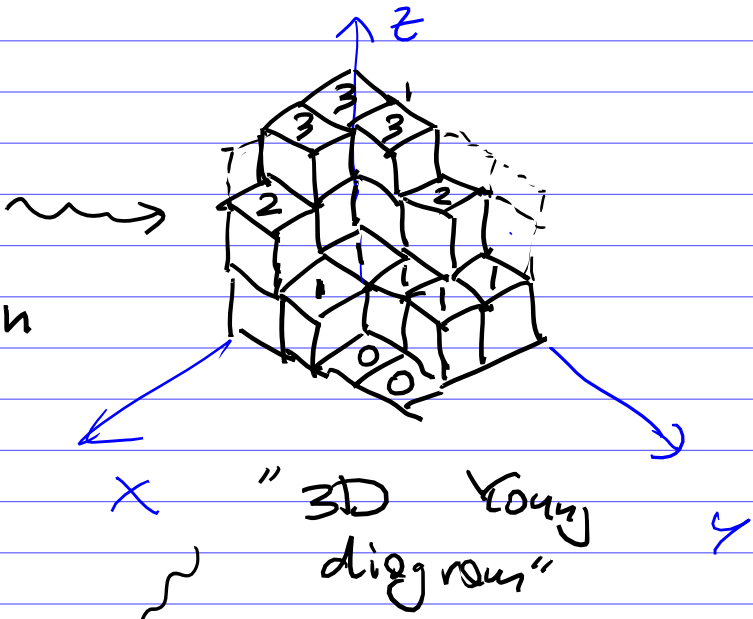
However, for (reverse) plane partitions with bounded entries there is a nice product formula only for rectangular shape.

Other interpretations of plane partitions:

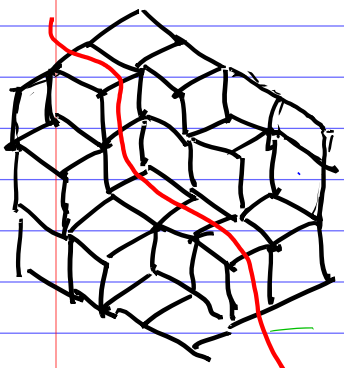
- Rhombus tilings
- Perfect matchings
- Pseudo-line arrangements



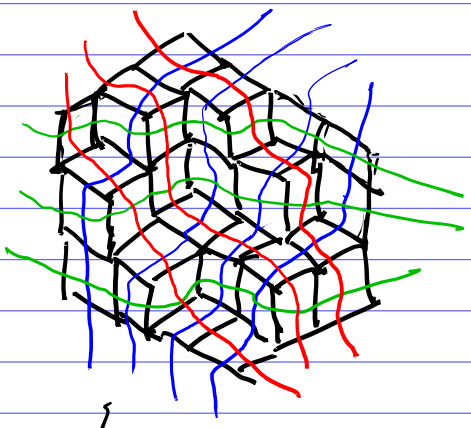
a plane partition



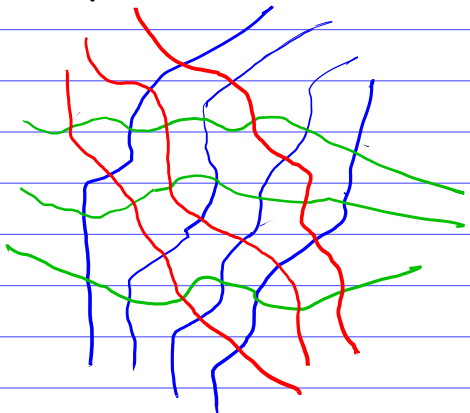
a rhombus tiling



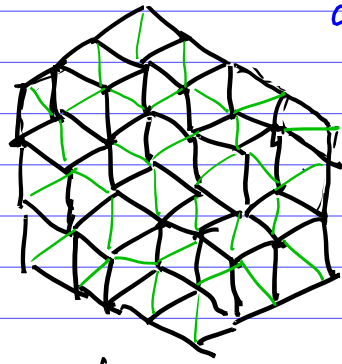
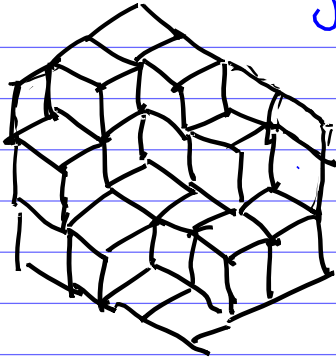
a pseudo-line
(a "line that can bend")



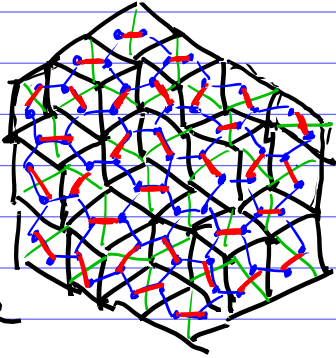
a pseudo line arrangement



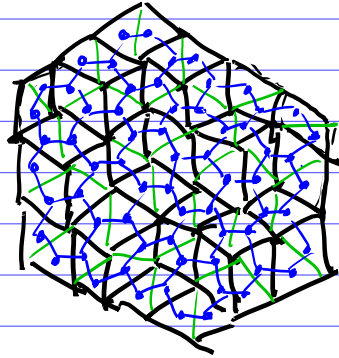
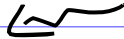
a rhombus tilings



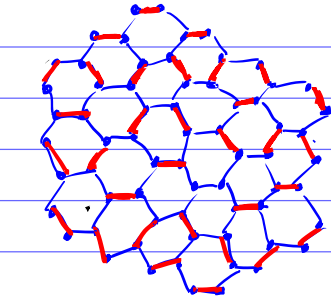
divide each rhombus by chord into 2 triangles



red edges are the edges that cross the dividing chords



take the plane dual graph



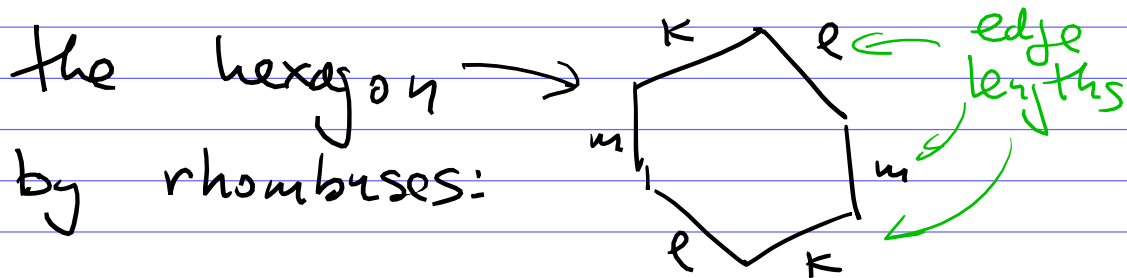
a perfect matching of the honeycomb graph

aka dimers

Theorem The number $pp_{k,e,m}$
 (# plane partitions of slope $k \times e$
 with entries in $\{0, 1, \dots, m\}$)
 equals:

- (rhombus tilings)

ways to subdivide



3 tile pieces:

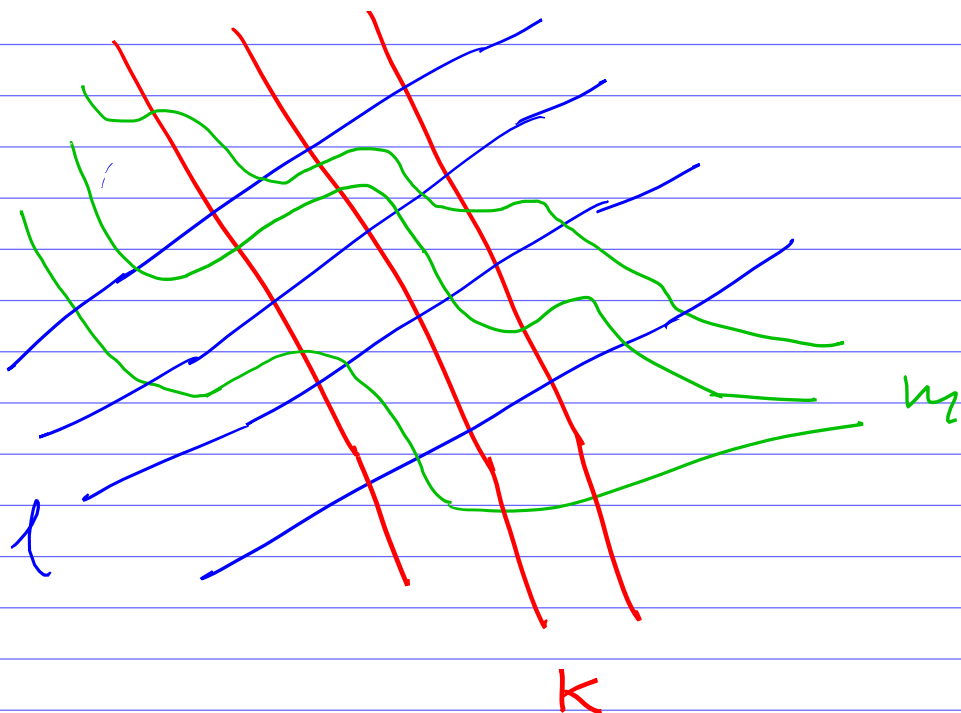


- (pseudoline arrangements)

combinatorial types of
 arrangements of
 pseudolines of 3 colors

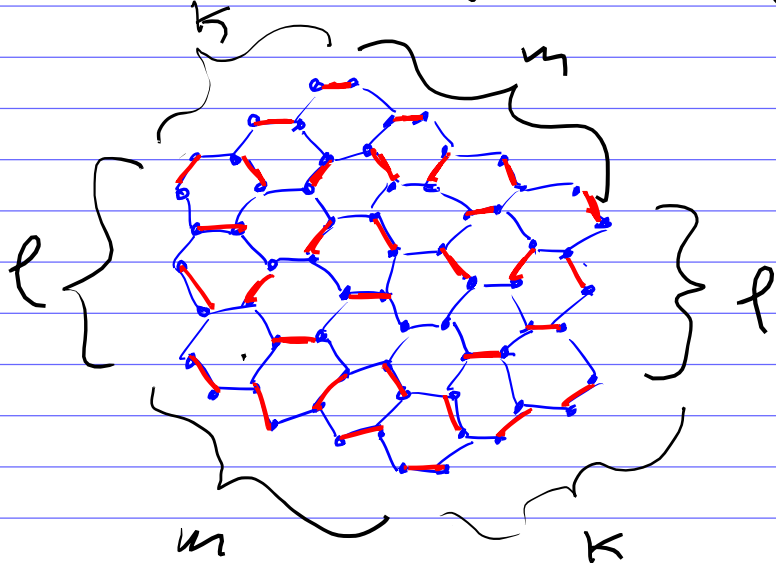
(k red pseudolines, e blue pseudoline, m green pseudolines)

s.t. pseudolines of the
 same color don't intersect
 & 2 pseudolines of different
 colors intersect exactly once

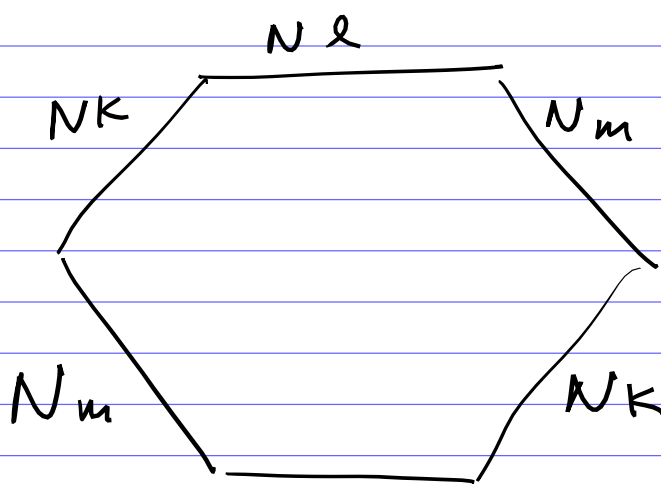


• perfect matchings:

perfect matching of the honeycomb graph:

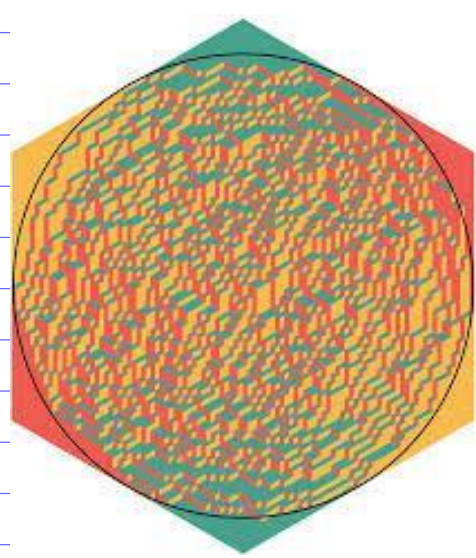
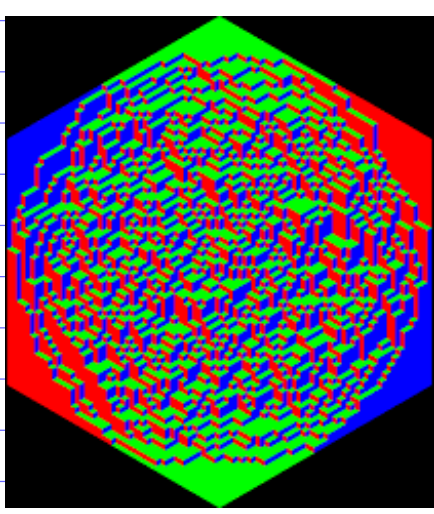
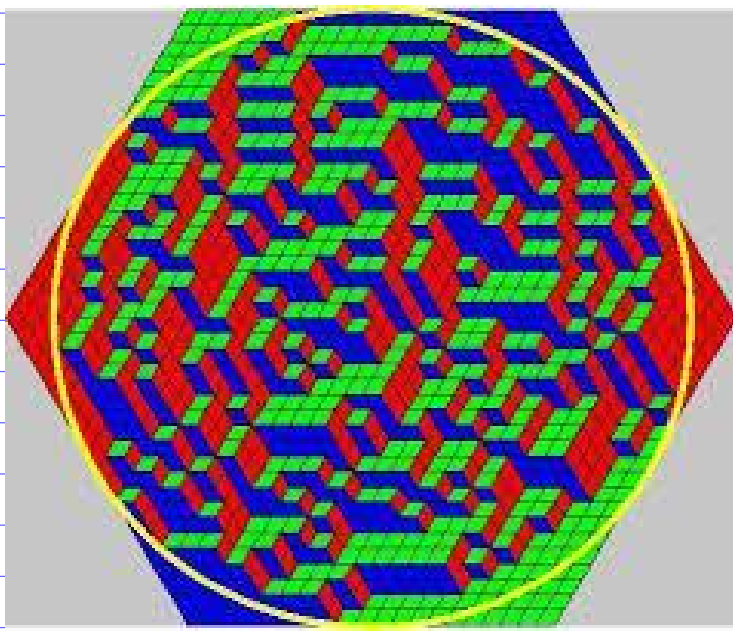


Arctic circle phenomenon:



Consider random rhombus tilings of hexagon for large N .

(Let's say $k=l=m$)



The area where tiling is "random" approaches a circle as $N \rightarrow \infty$.

The tiling is "frozen" around the vertices of the hexagon

