

Jordan Quiver, Part I

Talk 10 on Hall Algebras and Quantum Groups

1. The Jordan Quiver and its Nilpotent Representations

Definition 1.1. The *Jordan quiver* is the quiver that consists of a single vertex and a single edge, which is necessarily a loop.

Throughout this talk the Jordan quiver is denoted by Q . See Figure 1 for a visualization. In the following we write \mathbb{k} to mean a field or \mathbb{F}_1 .

A representation of the Jordan quiver over \mathbb{k} is the same as a pair (V, f) consisting of a \mathbb{k} -vector space V together with an endomorphism f of V . Two such representations (V, f) and (W, g) are isomorphic if and only if V, W are isomorphic as \mathbb{k} -vector spaces and the endomorphisms f, g are similar. We hence find that the isomorphism classes of Q -representations over \mathbb{k} are in one-to-one correspondence to conjugacy classes of endomorphisms of \mathbb{k} -vector spaces.

Suppose that V is finite-dimensional, and that \mathbb{k} is algebraically closed, or that it is \mathbb{F}_1 , or that we are interested only in nilpotent endomorphisms. Then one can use the usual Jordan normal form to classify these conjugacy classes.

A representation (V, f) of the Jordan quiver is nilpotent if and only if the endomorphism f is nilpotent. We will in the rest of this talk restrict our attention to finite-dimensional, nilpotent representations of the Jordan quiver. As introduced in the previous talks we denote by

$$\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{k})$$

the full subcategory of $\mathbf{Rep}(Q, \mathbb{k})$ whose objects are the finite-dimensional, nilpotent representations of Q over \mathbb{k} . We denote the set of isomorphism classes of $\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{k})$ by

$$\text{Iso}(Q, \mathbb{k}) := \mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{k}) / \cong.$$

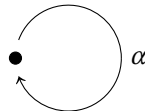
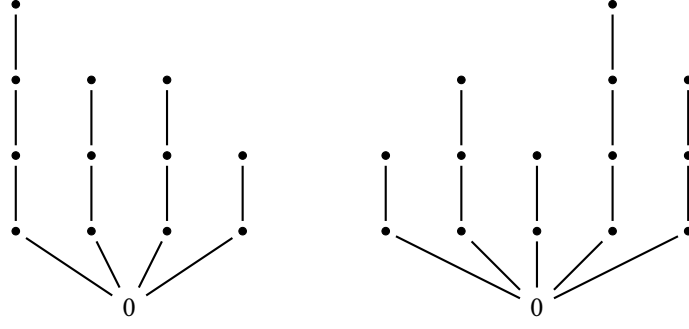


Figure 1: The Jordan quiver Q .

Figure 2: The representations $N_{(4,3,3,2)}$ and $N_{(2,3,2,4,3)}$ over \mathbb{F}_1 .

Definition 1.2. For every dimension $d \geq 0$ let

$$N_d := \left(\mathbb{k}^d, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & 1 \\ & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

if \mathbb{k} is a field, and let

$$N_d := (\{0, 1, \dots, d\}, [d \mapsto (d-1) \mapsto (d-2) \mapsto \dots \mapsto 1 \mapsto 0 \mapsto 0])$$

if $\mathbb{k} = \mathbb{F}_1$. For every tuple (d_1, \dots, d_n) of dimensions $d_i \geq 0$ let

$$N_{(d_1, \dots, d_n)} := N_{d_1} \oplus \dots \oplus N_{d_n}.$$

Example 1.3. See Figure 2 for visualizations of $N_{(4,3,3,2)}$ and $N_{(2,3,2,4,3)}$ over \mathbb{F}_1 .

Definition 1.4. For every $n \geq 0$ let $\text{Par}(n)$ be the set of partition of the number n , i.e.

$$\text{Par}(n) := \left\{ (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_l) \left| \begin{array}{l} \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_l \in \mathbb{N} \\ \lambda_1 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_l \geq 1 \\ \lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_l = n \end{array} \right. \right\}^1.$$

The set of all partitions is denoted by

$$\text{Par} := \coprod_{n \geq 0} \text{Par}(n).$$

Proposition 1.5. The representations N_λ with $\lambda \in \text{Par}$ form a set of representatives for $\text{Iso}(Q, \mathbb{k})$.

Proof. This follows from the existence and uniqueness of the Jordan normal form of nilpotent endomorphisms. (See Appendix A.1 for the Jordan normal form over \mathbb{F}_1 .) \square

¹We want to point out that in this talk we do not allow a partition to contain zero as an entry. This is done purely for technical reasons.

2. The Hall Algebra of the Jordan Quiver over \mathbb{F}_q

We will now consider for \mathbb{k} the finite field \mathbb{F}_q . Then $\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ is an abelian, finitary, full, exact subcategory of $\mathbf{Rep}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$. We want to consider in the following the Hall algebra of $\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$. For this we need to understand its Euler form.

Proposition 2.1. Let $\mathcal{A} := \mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ and let $S := N_1 = (\mathbb{k}, [0])$.

1. The category \mathcal{A} is hereditary, i.e. $\text{Ext}_{\mathcal{A}}^n = 0$ for every $n \geq 2$.
2. The Grothendieck group $K(\mathcal{A})$ is freely generated by the class $[S]$. Thus $K(\mathcal{A}) \cong \mathbb{Z}$ via the map $[M] \mapsto \dim(M)$.
3. The Euler form of \mathcal{A} vanishes.

Proof. See Appendix A.2 and Appendix A.3. □

Since $\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ is abelian and finitary with vanishing Euler form we can consider its Hall algebra $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$. We find that Green's coproduct makes $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ into a graded bialgebra because $\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ satisfies the finite subject condition and has vanishing Euler form.² It further follows that $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ is a graded Hopf algebra since it is connected. (See Appendix A.5 for a more detailed overview.)

The Hall algebra $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ has the classes $[N_\lambda]$ with $\lambda \in \text{Par}$ as a basis. The multiplication of $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ is given by

$$[N_\lambda] \cdot [N_\mu] = \sum_{\nu \in \text{Par}} F_{\lambda, \mu}^\nu [N_\nu]$$

where the structure constants $F_{\lambda, \mu}^\nu$ are given by

$$F_{\lambda, \mu}^\nu = \#\{\text{subrepresentation } L \text{ of } N_\nu \mid L \cong N_\mu, N_\nu/L \cong N_\lambda\}.$$

We will now compute some of the structure constants, following [Scho9, Example 2.2].

Example 2.2 (Structure constants).

1. Let $\lambda = (1^n)$ and $\mu = (1^m)$. We consider the partition $\nu := (1^{n+m})$. The action of the edge of the Jordan quiver Q on the representations N_λ , N_μ and N_ν is trivial. We thus find that every m -dimensional linear subspace L of N_ν satisfies the conditions $L \cong N_\mu$ and $N_\nu/L \cong N_\lambda$. The structure constant $F_{\lambda, \mu}^\nu$ is therefore given by

$$\begin{aligned} F_{\lambda, \mu}^\nu &= \text{number of } m\text{-dimensional linear subspaces of } N_\nu \\ &= \#\text{Gr}(m, n+m, \mathbb{F}_q) \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} n+m \\ m \end{bmatrix}_q. \end{aligned}$$

(See Lemma A.12 for the last equality.) We see in particular that $F_{\lambda, \mu}^\nu$ depends is a polynomial way on q (with natural coefficients). See Appendix A.7 for some explicit calculations of binomial coefficients.

²We say that a category \mathcal{A} satisfies the *finite subobject condition* if every object of \mathcal{A} admits only finitely many subobjects.

2. Let now $\lambda = (n)$ and $\mu = (m)$. We consider the partition $\nu = (n + m)$. The representation N_ν has the standard basis e_1, \dots, e_{n+m} , and the subrepresentations of N_ν are given by $\langle e_1, \dots, e_i \rangle$ for $i = 0, \dots, n+m$. The subrepresentations $L := \langle e_1, \dots, e_m \rangle$ is the unique one that is isomorphic to N_μ , and its quotient N_ν/L is isomorphic to N_λ . Thus

$$F_{(n),(m)}^{(n+m)} = 1.$$

3. One finds for all $n \geq 2$ and $m \geq 1$ that

$$F_{(n),(1^m)}^{(n,1^m)} = q^m = F_{(1^m),(n)}^{(n,1^m)},$$

see Appendix A.8.

We observe that in the above examples the coefficient $F_{\lambda,\mu}^\nu$ are always polynomials in q with integer coefficients. We will see in next week's talk that this is true for any coefficient $F_{\lambda,\mu}^\nu$. This will allow us to define the *generic Hall algebra* of the Jordan quiver.

We also have $F_{\lambda,\mu}^\nu = F_{\mu,\lambda}^\nu$ in each example. We will see in next week's talk that the Hall algebra $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ is indeed commutative, which means precisely that $F_{\lambda,\mu}^\nu = F_{\mu,\lambda}^\nu$ for any three partitions $\lambda, \mu, \nu \in \text{Par}$.

3. The Hall Algebra of the Jordan Quiver over \mathbb{F}_1

We will now consider the case that \mathbb{k} is \mathbb{F}_1 . We have seen in last week's talk how to construct the Hall algebra of Q over \mathbb{F}_1 , and that it is a cocommutative, graded Hopf algebra. (See Appendix A.9 for a more detailed overview.)

We have also seen that $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ is the universal enveloping algebra of its Lie algebra of its primitive elements, which is spanned (as a vector space) by those isomorphism classes $[M]$ for which M is indecomposable. We have the following consequence:

Corollary 3.1. The Hall algebra $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ is generated by $[N_i]$ for $i \geq 1$.

A more explicit proof of Corollary 3.1 can be found in Remark A.15.

Example 3.2 (Structure constants). We can again compute some structure constants $F_{\lambda,\mu}^\nu$.

1. Let again $\lambda = (1^n)$ and $\mu = (1^m)$, and consider $\nu = (1^{n+m})$. We find as before that

$$F_{\lambda,\mu}^\nu = \text{number of } m\text{-dimensional subspaces of } N_{n+m} = \binom{n+m}{m}.$$

2. Let again $\lambda = (n)$ and $\mu = (m)$ and consider $\nu = (n + m)$. We find as before that

$$F_{\lambda,\mu}^\nu = 1.$$

3. For all $n \geq 2$ and $m \geq 1$ we have

$$F_{(n),(1^m)}^{(n,1^m)} = 1 = F_{(1^m),(n)}^{(n,1^m)}.$$

4. Let us compute the product $[N_i] \cdot [N_j]$.

We observe that if $[R] \in \text{Iso}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ and L is a subrepresentation of R that is isomorphic to N_j then the quotient R/L results from R by contracting one of the Jordan chains of R by j elements. If $R/L \cong N_i$ then this means that R consists of a single Jordan chain of length $i + j$, or of two Jordan chains of length i and j respectively. Thus

$$[N_i] \cdot [N_j] = a[N_{(i,j)}] + b[N_{i+j}].$$

We have seen above that $b = F_{(i),(j)}^{(i+j)} = 1$. The coefficient $a = F_{(i),(j)}^{(i,j)}$ is given by

$$\begin{aligned} a &= \text{how often } j \text{ occurs in } (i, j) \\ &= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \neq j, \\ 2 & \text{if } i = j. \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$[N_i] \cdot [N_j] = \begin{cases} [N_{(i,j)}] + [N_{i+j}] & \text{if } i \neq j, \\ 2[N_{(i,j)}] + [N_{i+j}] & \text{if } i = j. \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

We see in particular that $[N_i]$ and $[N_j]$ commute.

We note that in the first three of the above examples we get the same results as for $k = \mathbb{F}_q$ by taking the limit $q \rightarrow 1$ (i.e. setting q equal to 1). We will see more on this phenomenon in next week's talk.

Corollary 3.3. The Hall algebra $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ is commutative.

Proof. Its generators $[N_i]$ with $i \geq 1$ commute. □

We see now that $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ is a commutative, cocommutative, graded Hopf algebra. It has a basis indexed by partitions, and its graded parts have the dimension

$$\dim \mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)_k = \#\{(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_l) \in \text{Par} \mid \lambda_1 + 2\lambda_2 + \dots + l\lambda_l = k\}$$

for every $k \geq 0$.

In the land of combinatorics there is another algebra with these properties, namely the *ring of symmetric functions*.

4. The Ring of Symmetric Functions Λ

4.1. Definition of Λ

For every $n \geq 0$ we denote by

$$\Lambda^{(n)} := \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]^{S_n}$$

the algebra of symmetric polynomials in n variables. We have for every number of variables $n \geq 0$ a homomorphism of graded algebras

$$\Lambda^{(n+1)} \rightarrow \Lambda^{(n)}, \quad f^{(n+1)} \mapsto f^{(n+1)}(x_1, \dots, x_n, 0).$$

Definition 4.1. The ring of symmetric functions Λ is the limit

$$\Lambda := \lim_{n \geq 0} (\Lambda^{(n+1)} \rightarrow \Lambda^{(n)})$$

in the category of graded algebras. The elements of Λ are *symmetric functions*.

Warning 4.2. A symmetric function is – contrary to its name – not a function.

Let us make the above definition more explicit: For every degree $k \geq 0$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda_k &= \lim_{n \geq 0} (\Lambda_k^{(n+1)} \rightarrow \Lambda_k^{(n)}) \\ &= \left\{ (f^{(n)})_{n \geq 0} \mid \begin{array}{l} f^{(n)} \in \Lambda_k^{(n)} \text{ for every } n \geq 0 \text{ such that} \\ f^{(n+1)}(x_1, \dots, x_n, 0) = f^{(n)} \text{ for every } n \geq 0 \end{array} \right\}, \end{aligned}$$

and we have overall

$$\Lambda = \bigoplus_{k \geq 0} \Lambda_k$$

as vector spaces. A homogeneous symmetric function f , say of degree k , is thus the same as a “consistent choice” of homogeneous symmetric polynomials $f^{(n)}$ of degree k for every number of variables $n \geq 0$.

We have for every number of variables $n \geq 0$ a homomorphism of graded algebras

$$\Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda^{(n)}, \quad f \mapsto f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

that is given in each degree by projection onto the n -th component.³

Example 4.3. We have for every number of variables $n \geq 0$ and every degree $k \geq 0$ the *elementary symmetric polynomial*

$$e_k^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) := \sum_{1 \leq i_1 < \dots < i_k \leq n} x_{i_1} \cdots x_{i_k} \in \Lambda_k^{(n)},$$

with $e_k^{(n)} = 0$ whenever $k > n$. These polynomials satisfy the compatibility condition

$$e_k^{(n+1)}(x_1, \dots, x_n, 0) = e_k^{(n)}$$

for all $n \geq 0$. These elementary symmetric polynomials $e_k^{(n)}$ with $n \geq 0$ therefore assemble into a single homogeneous symmetric function

$$e_k \in \Lambda_k.$$

This is the k -th *elementary symmetric function*.

³For any two symmetric functions $f, g \in \Lambda$ we have by construction of the algebra Λ that $f = g$ if and only if $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = g(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ for every number of variables $n \geq 0$. It also suffices that this equality holds for all sufficiently large n , i.e. if there exists some N such that this equality holds for all $n \geq N$.

We find similarly that the *power symmetric polynomials*

$$p_k^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) := x_1^k + \dots + x_n^k,$$

and the *complete homogenous symmetric polynomials*

$$h_k^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) := \sum_{1 \leq i_1 \leq \dots \leq i_k \leq n} x_{i_1} \cdots x_{i_k} = \sum \text{monomials of homogeneous degree } k$$

result in homogeneous symmetric functions

$$p_k, h_k \in \Lambda_k.$$

These are the *power symmetric functions* and *complete homogeneous symmetric functions*.

See Appendix A.11 for some remarks about the definition of Λ .

4.2. The Fundamental Theorem on Symmetric Functions

The *fundamental theorem of symmetric polynomials* asserts that for every number of variables $n \geq 0$ the elementary symmetric polynomials

$$e_1^{(n)}, \dots, e_n^{(n)}$$

form an algebraically independent generating set for the algebra of symmetric polynomials $\Lambda^{(n)}$. It follows from this that both

$$h_1^{(n)}, \dots, h_n^{(n)} \quad \text{and} \quad p_1^{(n)}, \dots, p_n^{(n)}$$

also form algebraically independent algebra generating set for $\Lambda^{(n)}$.⁴ We hence have

$$\Lambda^{(n)} \cong \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]^{S_n}$$

as graded algebras, where x_k is homogeneous of degree k .

For every partition $\lambda \in \text{Par}$ with $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_l)$ we can consider the symmetric polynomials

$$e_\lambda^{(n)} := e_{\lambda_1}^{(n)} \cdots e_{\lambda_l}^{(n)}, \quad h_\lambda^{(n)} := h_{\lambda_1}^{(n)} \cdots h_{\lambda_l}^{(n)}, \quad p_\lambda^{(n)} := p_{\lambda_1}^{(n)} \cdots p_{\lambda_l}^{(n)}.$$

We have just formulated that the symmetric polynomials

$$e_\lambda^{(n)} \quad \text{for } \lambda \in \text{Par} \text{ with length } \ell(\lambda) \leq n$$

form a vector space basis for $\Lambda^{(n)}$, and similarly for $h_\lambda^{(n)}$ and $p_\lambda^{(n)}$. We can generalize these families of symmetric polynomials to symmetric functions:

⁴For the elementary symmetric polynomials $e_k^{(n)}$ and homogeneous symmetric polynomials $h_k^{(n)}$ these statements do not only hold over the ground field \mathbb{C} , but over every commutative ring. For the power symmetric polynomials $p_k^{(n)}$ we need to work over a field in which the numbers $1, \dots, n$ are invertible.

Example 4.4. For every partition $\lambda \in \text{Par}$ with $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_l)$ we consider the symmetric functions

$$e_\lambda := e_{\lambda_1} \cdots e_{\lambda_l}, \quad h_\lambda := h_{\lambda_1} \cdots h_{\lambda_l}, \quad p_\lambda := p_{\lambda_1} \cdots p_{\lambda_l}$$

and note that

$$\begin{aligned} e_\lambda(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= e_\lambda^{(n)}, \\ h_\lambda(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= h_\lambda^{(n)}, \\ p_\lambda(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= p_\lambda^{(n)}. \end{aligned}$$

We now want to generalize the fundamental theorem on symmetric polynomials to symmetric functions. The key observation behind this is the following:

Proposition 4.5. The map $\Lambda_k^{(n+1)} \rightarrow \Lambda_k^{(n)}$ is an isomorphism whenever $n \geq k$.

Proof. A vector space basis of $\Lambda_k^{(n)}$ is given by the symmetric polynomials $e_\lambda^{(n)}$ where the partition λ is of length $\ell(\lambda) \leq n$ and $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_l)$ satisfies

$$\lambda_1 + 2\lambda_2 + \cdots + l\lambda_l = k.$$

A vector space basis of $\Lambda_k^{(n+1)}$ is given by the symmetric polynomials $e_\mu^{(n+1)}$ where the partition μ is of length $\ell(\mu) \leq n+1$ and $\mu = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_l)$ satisfies

$$\mu_1 + 2\mu_2 + \cdots + l\mu_l = k.$$

We find by degree reasons that the case $\ell(\mu) = n+1$ cannot occur. The linear map $\Lambda_k^{(n+1)} \rightarrow \Lambda_k^{(n)}$ does therefore restrict to a bijection between the above bases. \square

Corollary 4.6. The map $\Lambda_k \rightarrow \Lambda_k^{(n)}$ is an isomorphism whenever $n \geq k$. \square

Corollary 4.7. The following families of symmetric functions form vector space bases of Λ :

1. The elementary symmetric polynomials e_λ with $\lambda \in \text{Par}$.
2. The complete homogeneous symmetric polynomials h_λ with $\lambda \in \text{Par}$.
3. The power symmetric polynomials p_λ with $\lambda \in \text{Par}$. \square

Corollary 4.8. The elementary symmetric functions e_k with $k \geq 1$ form an algebraically independent algebra generating set for Λ , and similarly the h_k and the p_k . \square

Corollary 4.9. We have $\Lambda \cong \mathbb{C}[X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots]$ as graded algebras, where each variable X_k is homogeneous of degree k . \square

See Appendix A.13 for more consequences.

4.3. Hopf Algebra Structure on Λ

We can endow the algebra of symmetric functions Λ with the structure of a graded Hopf algebra. We have for any two number of variables $n, m \geq 0$ a homomorphism of graded algebras

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta_{nm} : \Lambda^{(n+m)} &= \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_{n+m}]^{S_{n+m}} \\
 &\subseteq \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_{n+m}]^{S_n \times S_m} \\
 &\cong (\mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n] \otimes \mathbb{C}[x_{n+1}, \dots, x_{n+m}])^{S_n \times S_m} \\
 &\cong (\mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n] \otimes \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_m])^{S_n \times S_m} \\
 &= \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]^{S_n} \otimes \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_m]^{S_m} \quad (\text{Lemma A.18}) \\
 &= \Lambda^{(n)} \otimes \Lambda^{(m)}.
 \end{aligned}$$

We would like to have a homomorphism of graded algebras $\Delta : \Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda \otimes \Lambda$ such that for any number of variables $n, m \geq 0$ the square diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \Lambda & \xrightarrow{\Delta} & \Lambda \otimes \Lambda \\
 \downarrow & & \downarrow \\
 \Lambda^{(n+m)} & \xrightarrow{\Delta_{nm}} & \Lambda^{(n)} \otimes \Lambda^{(m)}
 \end{array}$$

commutes. The composition $\Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda^{(n)} \otimes \Lambda^{(m)}$ is given on the algebra generators p_k of Λ by

$$p_k \mapsto p_k^{(n)} \otimes 1 + 1 \otimes p_k^{(m)}.$$

Such an algebra homomorphism Δ is thus given by

$$\Delta(p_k) = p_k \otimes 1 + 1 \otimes p_k.$$

This homomorphism exists because Λ is the free commutative algebra on the generators p_k .

The homomorphism Δ makes the algebra Λ into a cocommutative, graded bialgebra. Since Λ is graded and connected it follows that it is already a graded Hopf algebra.

We see altogether that Λ is a commutative, cocommutative, graded Hopf algebra. It has a basis indexed by partitions, and its graded parts have the dimension

$$\dim \Lambda_k = \#\{(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_l) \in \text{Par} \mid \lambda_1 + 2\lambda_2 + \dots + l\lambda_l = k\}.$$

5. The Isomorphism $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1) \cong \Lambda$

Both $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ and Λ are commutative, cocommutative, graded Hopf algebras. They are actually isomorphic:

The ring of symmetric functions Λ is, as a commutative algebra, freely generated by the power symmetric functions p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots . There hence exists a unique, surjective algebra homomorphism $\Phi : \Lambda \rightarrow \mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ with

$$\Phi(p_k) = [N_k]$$

for every degree $k \geq 1$. We note that Φ is a homomorphism of graded algebras because both p_i and $[N_k]$ are of degree k . We also have for every degree $k \geq 0$ that $\dim \Lambda_k = \dim \mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)_k$, with this dimension being finite. It thus follows from the surjectivity of Φ that it is already an isomorphism of graded algebras.

The algebra isomorphism Φ is already an isomorphism of Hopf algebras: It suffices to check that Φ is compatible with the comultiplication of the algebra generators p_k . This holds since p_k is primitive in Λ and $[N_k]$ is primitive in $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$.

We have shown altogether that Φ is an isomorphism of graded Hopf algebras.

Remark 5.1. One can show more generally that the isomorphism class $[N_\lambda]$ for $\lambda \in \text{Par}$ corresponds under the above isomorphism Φ to the monomial symmetric function m_λ . See Appendix A.12 and Appendix A.15 for more details on this.

The structure constants $F_{\lambda, \mu}^\nu$ of the Hall algebra $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ can thus be understood in the language of symmetric functions as those coefficients for which

$$m_\lambda m_\mu = \sum_{\nu \in \text{Par}} F_{\lambda, \mu}^\nu m_\nu.$$

A. Further Remarks and Missing Proofs

The following isn't proofread very well and should probably be treated with care.

A.1. Theorem of Krull–Remak–Schmidt and Jordan Normal Form

Let V be an \mathbb{F}_1 -vector space and let $f: V \rightarrow V$ be an endomorphism.

Recall A.1.

1. A *subspace* of V is a subset of V that contains the base point 0.
2. If $(U_i)_{i \in I}$ is a collection of subspaces of V then $V = \bigoplus_{i \in I} U_i$ if and only if every nonzero element of V is contained in precisely one U_i , i.e. if and only if the U_i give a disjoint decomposition of the set $V \setminus \{0\}$.
3. If U is a subspace of V and $V = \bigoplus_{i \in I} W_i$ is a direct sum decomposition then $U = \bigoplus_{i \in I} (U \cap W_i)$.

Definition A.2. A subspace U of V is *f-invariant* if $f(U) \subseteq U$. An *f-invariant* subspace U of V is *indecomposable* if it is nonzero and there exist no two nonzero *f-invariant* subspaces W_1, W_2 of U with $U = W_1 \oplus W_2$.

Remark A.3. If U is an indecomposable subspace of V and $U = \bigoplus_{i \in I} W_i$ is any decomposition into *f-invariant* subspaces W_i then it follows that $U = W_j$ for some $j \in I$ while $W_i = 0$ for every $i \neq j$. Indeed, some W_j must be nonzero because U is nonzero. Then $V = W_j \oplus \bigoplus_{i \in I, i \neq j} W_i$ and thus $\bigoplus_{i \in I, i \neq j} W_i = 0$, and therefore $W_i = 0$ for every $i \in I$.

Proposition A.4 (Krull–Remak–Schmidt). There exists a unique direct sum decomposition of V into indecomposable *f-invariant* subspaces.

Proof. In the following we mean by a *decomposition* a direct sum decomposition into *f-invariant* subspaces in which each direct summand is nonzero. We say that a decomposition $V = \bigoplus_{i \in I} U_i$ is *finer* than a decomposition $V = \bigoplus_{j \in J} W_j$ if each U_i is contained in some W_j . This gives a partial order on the set of decompositions of V .

We note that a decomposition $V = \bigoplus_{i \in I} U_i$ consists of indecomposables if and only if it is maximal fine. Indeed, if some U_j is decomposable then there exists a decomposition $U_j = U'_j \oplus U''_j$. Then

$$V = \bigoplus_{i \in I} U_i = \bigoplus_{\substack{i \in I \\ i \neq j}} U_i \oplus U_j = \bigoplus_{\substack{i \in I \\ i \neq j}} U_i \oplus U'_j \oplus U''_j$$

with the last term being a strictly finer than the original decomposition $V = \bigoplus_{i \in I} U_i$. Suppose on the other hand that each U_i is indecomposable and that $V = \bigoplus_{j \in J} W_j$ is a decomposition that is finer than $V = \bigoplus_{i \in I} U_i$. Then $U_i = \bigoplus_{j \in J} (U_i \cap W_j)$ for every $j \in J$. It follows that $U_i = U_i \cap W_j$ for some $j \in J$ and thus $U_i \subseteq W_j$. We also know that W_j is contained in some U_k . Then U_i is contained in U_k whence it follows that $i = k$ and thus $U_i = W_j$. This shows that each U_i equals some W_j , from which it follows that both decompositions must coincide.

We hence need to show that there exists a unique decomposition which is maximal fine. It suffices to show that any collection of decompositions has a common refinement. Taking a common refinement of all decompositions then gives the desired one.

Let $V = \bigoplus_{j \in J_i} U_j^i$ with $i \in I$ be a collection of decompositions. For every nonzero vector $v \in V$ there exists for every $i \in I$ a unique index $j(i, v) \in J_i$ with $v \in U_{j(i, v)}^i$. We consider

$$W_v := \bigcap_{i \in I} U_{j(i, v)}^i.$$

Each W_v is an intersection of f -invariant subspaces and therefore again an f -invariant subspace. Each nonzero vector v of V is contained in some $W_{v'}$, namely for $v' = v$.

Suppose that for two nonzero vectors $v, u \in V$ the subspaces W_v and W_u intersect nonzero. Let w be a nonzero vector contained in both W_v and W_u . Then for every index $i \in I$ the vector w is contained in $U_{j(i, v)}^i$, whence $j(i, v) = j(i, w)$. It follows that $W_v = W_w$, and we find in the same way that $W_u = W_w$. Thus $W_v = W_w$.

This shows that the f -invariant subspaces W_v give a disjoint decomposition of $V \setminus \{0\}$, and hence a decomposition of V . (Once we remove those subspaces which occur multiple times.) This decomposition of V is by construction finer than each decomposition $V = \bigoplus_{j \in J_i} U_j^i$. \square

We want to understand how the decomposition from the Krull–Remak–Schmidt theorem looks like. We note that if $v \in V$ is any nonzero vector then there exists at most one preimage of v under f , since f is injective outside of its kernel. Thus we can consider for every nonzero vector $v \in V$ the well-defined two-sided sequence

$$\dots, f^{-2}(v), f^{-1}(v), v, f(v), f^2(v), \dots$$

Here the left part of the sequence consists of as many iterated preimages as exist. The set of all these elements is the *orbit* of v under f . It is denoted by $[v]$.

We note that for any nonzero vector u in $[v]$ we have $[u] = [v]$. If two orbits $[v]$ and $[w]$ intersect in a nonzero vector u then it follows that $[v] = [u] = [w]$. Two distinct orbits do therefore intersect at most in 0. It follows that the orbits give induce a disjoint decomposition of $V \setminus \{0\}$. The vector space V does therefore decompose into the direct sum of the subspaces $[v] \cup \{0\}$. (Once we remove those subspaces which occur multiple times.) Each subspace $[v] \cup \{0\}$ is f -invariant. Any two nonzero f -invariant subspaces of $[v] \cup \{0\}$ intersect nonzero whence the subspaces $[v] \cup \{0\}$ are indecomposable.

This shows that the decomposition of V from the Krull–Remak–Schmidt theorem is given by the orbits with respect to f (together with $\{0\}$).

There exist five kinds of orbits.

Type A. The orbit ends in zero and is finite: It is thus of the form

$$v \rightarrow f(v) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow f^n(v) = 0$$

for a unique vector v , that has no preimage under f .

Type B. The orbit ends in zero and is infinite: It is thus of the form

$$\dots \rightarrow f^{-2}(v) \rightarrow f^{-1}(v) \rightarrow v \rightarrow f(v) \rightarrow f^2(v) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow f^n(v) = 0.$$

	injective	surjective	bijective	nilpotent	finite-dimensional
Type A				◦	◦
Type B			•	◦	
Type C	•				
Type D	•	•	•		
Type E	•	•	•		◦

Table 1: Possible orbits. Complete characterization via orbits for •. Only locally for ◦.

Type C. The orbit never reaches zero and has only finitely many preimages. It is thus of the form

$$v \rightarrow f(v) \rightarrow f^2(v) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow f^n(v) \rightarrow \dots$$

for a unique vector v , that has no preimage under f .

Type D. The orbit goes infinite in both directions and is non-circular. It is thus of the form

$$\dots \rightarrow f^{-1}(v) \rightarrow v \rightarrow f(v) \rightarrow f^2(v) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow f^n(v) \rightarrow \dots$$

Type E. The orbit is circular. It is thus of the form

$$v \rightarrow f(v) \rightarrow f^2(v) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow f^n(v) \rightarrow v \rightarrow f(v) \rightarrow \dots$$

Depending on the properties of the vector space V and endomorphism f not all kinds of orbits can occur.

- The endomorphism f is injective if and only if no orbits of Type A and Type B occur.
- The endomorphism f is surjective if and only if no orbits of Type A and Type C occur.
- The endomorphism f is bijective if and only if only orbits of Type D and Type E occur.
- The endomorphism f is locally nilpotent if and only if only orbits of Type A and Type B appear.⁵
- The endomorphism f is nilpotent if and only if only orbits of Type A occur, and the lengths of the occurring orbits is bounded.
- If V is finite-dimensional then only orbits of Type A and Type E occur.
- More generally, V is locally finite-dimensional with respect to f if and only if only orbits of Type A and Type E occur.⁶

See Table 1 for an overview.

⁵An endomorphism f is locally nilpotent if there exists for every vector v some power $n \geq 0$ such that $f^n(v) = 0$.

⁶We say that V is locally finite-dimensional if every nonzero vector of V is contained in a finite-dimensional f -invariant subspace.

A.2. Proving That $\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ is Hereditary

Definition A.5. Let \mathcal{A} be an abelian category. A subcategory \mathcal{B} is *closed under extensions* if for every short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow 0$ in \mathcal{A} the middle term B is contained in \mathcal{B} provided that both outer terms A, C are contained in \mathcal{B} .

Definition A.6. Let \mathcal{A} be an abelian category. A subcategory \mathcal{B} of \mathcal{A} is a *Serre subcategory* if it is abelian, exact, full and closed under extensions.

Example A.7. The category $\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ is a Serre subcategory of $\mathbf{Rep}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q) \cong \mathbb{F}_q[x]\text{-Mod}$. Indeed, it is a full, abelian, exact subcategory of $\mathbf{Rep}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$. If in a short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{\varphi} B \xrightarrow{\psi} C \rightarrow 0$$

of Q -representations both A, B are finite-dimensional then the same holds for B . If both A, C are nilpotent then same holds for B : There exists some powers $n, m \geq 0$ with $\alpha^n A = 0$ and $\alpha^m C = 0$. It follows that $\alpha^m B \subseteq \ker(\psi) = \text{im}(\varphi)$ and thus $\alpha^{n+m} B = 0$.

If \mathcal{A} is an abelian category and \mathcal{B} is an abelian, exact subcategory then we have for every $n \geq 0$ and every two objects A, B of \mathcal{B} an induced map

$$\text{Ext}_{\mathcal{B}}^n(A, B) \rightarrow \text{Ext}_{\mathcal{A}}^n(A, B).$$

Proposition A.8. Let \mathcal{A} be an abelian category and let \mathcal{B} be an abelian, exact subcategory of \mathcal{A} .

1. Suppose that \mathcal{B} is a full subcategory of \mathcal{A} . Then the induced map $\text{Ext}_{\mathcal{B}}^1(A, B) \rightarrow \text{Ext}_{\mathcal{A}}^1(A, B)$ is injective for any two objects A, B of \mathcal{B} . If \mathcal{B} is a Serre subcategory of \mathcal{A} then the induced map $\text{Ext}_{\mathcal{B}}^1(A, B) \rightarrow \text{Ext}_{\mathcal{A}}^1(A, B)$ is bijective.
2. Suppose that \mathcal{B} is a Serre subcategory of \mathcal{A} . Suppose furthermore that for some $n \geq 1$ the induced map $\text{Ext}_{\mathcal{B}}^n(A, B) \rightarrow \text{Ext}_{\mathcal{A}}^n(A, B)$ is bijective for any two objects A, B of \mathcal{B} . Then the induced map $\text{Ext}_{\mathcal{B}}^{n+1}(A, B) \rightarrow \text{Ext}_{\mathcal{A}}^{n+1}(A, B)$ is injective for any two objects A, B of \mathcal{B} .

Proof.

1. Two short exact sequences in \mathcal{B} ,

$$0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow X \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow X' \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0,$$

are equivalent in \mathcal{A} if there exists an isomorphism $\varphi: X \rightarrow X'$ that makes the diagram

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & B & \longrightarrow & X & \longrightarrow & A \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \parallel & & \downarrow \varphi & & \parallel \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & B & \longrightarrow & X' & \longrightarrow & A \longrightarrow 0 \end{array}$$

commute. We find that φ is already an isomorphism in \mathcal{B} because \mathcal{B} is full in \mathcal{A} . Thus both sequences are already equivalent in \mathcal{B} . This shows the injectivity of $\text{Ext}_{\mathcal{B}}^1(A, B) \rightarrow \text{Ext}_{\mathcal{A}}^1(A, B)$.

Suppose now that \mathcal{B} is a Serre subcategory of \mathcal{A} . Let A, B be two objects in \mathcal{B} . Every element ξ of $\text{Ext}_{\mathcal{A}}^1(A, B)$ is represented by a short exact sequence $0 \rightarrow B \rightarrow X \rightarrow A \rightarrow 0$ in \mathcal{A} . The middle term X is already contained in \mathcal{B} because \mathcal{B} is closed under extensions. Thus ξ lies in $\text{Ext}_{\mathcal{B}}^1(A, B)$.

2. We refer to [Oor63, Proposition 3.3]. \square

Corollary A.9. Let \mathcal{A} be an abelian category and let \mathcal{B} be a Serre subcategory of \mathcal{A} . If \mathcal{A} is hereditary then so is \mathcal{B} .

Proof. Let A, B be two objects of \mathcal{B} . We show by induction on $n \geq 1$ that the induced map $\text{Ext}_{\mathcal{B}}^n(A, B) \rightarrow \text{Ext}_{\mathcal{A}}^n(A, B)$ is bijective. The assertion follows from this.

We know from Proposition A.8 that the induced map $\text{Ext}_{\mathcal{B}}^1(A, B) \rightarrow \text{Ext}_{\mathcal{A}}^1(A, B)$ is bijective. If for some $n \geq 1$ the induced map $\text{Ext}_{\mathcal{B}}^n(A, B) \rightarrow \text{Ext}_{\mathcal{A}}^n(A, B)$ is bijective then it follows from Proposition A.8 that the induced map $\text{Ext}_{\mathcal{B}}^{n+1}(A, B) \rightarrow \text{Ext}_{\mathcal{A}}^{n+1}(A, B)$ is injective. It is also surjective because \mathcal{A} is hereditary. \square

Example A.10. Example A.7 shows that $\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ is a Serre subcategory of $\mathbf{Rep}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$. The category $\mathbf{Rep}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q) \cong \mathbb{F}_q[x]\text{-Mod}$ is hereditary because it has enough projectives and submodules of projective $\mathbb{F}_q[x]$ -modules are again projective, since $\mathbb{F}[x]$ is a principal ideal domain. It thus follows from Corollary A.9 that $\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ is again hereditary.

A.3. Understanding $K(\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q))$ and the Euler Form of $\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$

The indecomposable objects of $\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ are precisely N_i with $i \geq 1$. The representation N_i has (up to isomorphism) precisely the subrepresentations N_j with $j = 0, \dots, i$. Thus N_1 is the unique simple object in $\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$.

Every objects in $\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ admits a composition series, whose composition factors are necessarily the unique simple objects S . It follows that $[S]$ is a free generator of the Grothendieck group $K := K(\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q))$.

We have $\text{Hom}(S, S) \cong \mathbb{F}_q$ and $\text{Ext}^1(S, S) \cong \mathbb{F}_q$. The first isomorphism holds because S is one-dimensional, and the second is shown in Appendix A.4.

To show that the Euler form of $\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ vanishes we regard it as a bilinear form

$$\langle -, - \rangle : K \times K \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}^\times.$$

Since S is a generator of K it suffices to show that $\langle S, S \rangle = 1$. This holds true because

$$\langle S, S \rangle = \left(\# \text{Hom}(S, S) \right) \cdot \left(\# \text{Ext}^1(S, S) \right)^{-1} = q \cdot q^{-1} = 1.$$

A.4. Computing $\text{Ext}^1(S, S)$

In $\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ we can compute $\text{Ext}^1(S, S)$ for $S = N_1$ in two ways:

A.4.1. Via Homological Algebra

Let $\mathbb{k} := \mathbb{F}_q$. We find with Proposition A.8 that

$$\text{Ext}^1(S, S) = \text{Ext}_{\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{k})}^1(S, S) \cong \text{Ext}_{\mathbf{Rep}(Q, \mathbb{k})}^1(S, S) \cong \text{Ext}_{\mathbb{k}[x]\text{-Mod}}^1(\mathbb{k}, \mathbb{k}).$$

We can use for \mathbb{k} (in the first argument) the projective resolution

$$\cdots \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \mathbb{k}[x] \xrightarrow{x} \mathbb{k}[x] \rightarrow \mathbb{k} \rightarrow 0.$$

Applying the functor $\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{k}[x]}(-, \mathbb{k})$ gives the chain complex

$$0 \rightarrow \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{k}[x]}(\mathbb{k}[x], \mathbb{k}) \xrightarrow{x} \text{Hom}_{\mathbb{k}[x]}(\mathbb{k}[x], \mathbb{k}) \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \cdots,$$

which is isomorphic to the chain complex

$$0 \rightarrow \mathbb{k} \xrightarrow{0} \mathbb{k} \rightarrow 0 \rightarrow \cdots$$

We find in particular that

$$\text{Hom}_{\mathbb{k}[x]}(\mathbb{k}, \mathbb{k}) \cong \mathbb{k}, \quad \text{Ext}_{\mathbb{k}[x]}^1(\mathbb{k}, \mathbb{k}) \cong \mathbb{k}.$$

A.4.2. Via Counting

We can also count the Yoneda classes of short exact sequences: We have $N_1 = (\mathbb{k}, [0])$, and a short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow (\mathbb{k}, [0]) \rightarrow ? \rightarrow (\mathbb{k}, [0]) \rightarrow 0$$

can have as its middle term (up to isomorphism) either

$$N_{(1,1)} = \left(\mathbb{k}^2, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right) \quad \text{or} \quad N_2 = \left(\mathbb{k}^2, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right).$$

In the first case we get a short exact sequence

$$0 \rightarrow (\mathbb{k}, [0]) \rightarrow \left(\mathbb{k}^2, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right) \rightarrow (\mathbb{k}, [0]) \rightarrow 0.$$

This short exact sequence splits on the level of \mathbb{k} -vector spaces, and any such split is already a homomorphism of representations. We hence find that this sequence describes the unique element of $\text{Ext}^1(S, S)$ that is given by the split exact sequences.

We consider now the short exact sequences of the form

$$0 \rightarrow (\mathbb{k}, [0]) \xrightarrow{\varphi} \left(\mathbb{k}^2, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right) \xrightarrow{\psi} (\mathbb{k}, [0]) \rightarrow 0. \quad (2)$$

The homomorphism φ must be of the form

$$\varphi = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

for some $a \neq 0$ since the image of φ must be contained in the kernel of $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. It follows from the exactness of the sequence that the homomorphism ψ is of the form

$$\psi = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & b \end{bmatrix}$$

for some $b \neq 0$.

Two such sequences $\xi_{a,b}$ and $\xi_{a',b'}$ for $a, a', b, b' \neq 0$ are Yoneda equivalent if and only if there exists an invertible matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} w & x \\ y & z \end{bmatrix} \in \text{GL}(2, \mathbb{k})$$

such that

$$\begin{bmatrix} w & x \\ y & z \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w & x \\ y & z \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$

and the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & \longrightarrow & (k, [0]) & \xrightarrow{\begin{bmatrix} a \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}} & \left(\mathbb{k}^2, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right) & \xrightarrow{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & b \end{bmatrix}} & (k, [0]) \longrightarrow 0 \\ & & \parallel & & \downarrow \begin{bmatrix} w & x \\ y & z \end{bmatrix} & & \parallel \\ 0 & \longrightarrow & (k, [0]) & \xrightarrow{\begin{bmatrix} a' \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}} & \left(\mathbb{k}^2, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right) & \xrightarrow{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & b' \end{bmatrix}} & (k, [0]) \longrightarrow 0 \end{array} \quad (4)$$

The condition (3) means that $w = z$ and $y = 0$, i.e. that the matrix is of the form

$$\begin{bmatrix} w & x \\ 0 & w \end{bmatrix},$$

The commutativity of the diagram (4) means that

$$w = \frac{a'}{a} \quad \text{and} \quad w = \frac{b}{b'}.$$

We hence find that the extensions $\xi_{a,b}$ and $\xi_{a',b'}$ are Yoneda equivalent if and only if $a'/a = b/b'$.

It follows that the Yoneda equivalence classes of short exact sequences of the form (2) have as a set of representatives the sequences

$$0 \rightarrow (\mathbb{k}, [0]) \xrightarrow{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}} \left(\mathbb{k}^2, \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right) \xrightarrow{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & b \end{bmatrix}} (\mathbb{k}, [0]) \rightarrow 0$$

with $b \neq 0$.

We find that overall we have $\#\mathbb{k} = \#\mathbb{F}_q = q$ many Yoneda equivalence classes of short exact sequences. Thus

$$\#\text{Ext}^1(S, S) = q,$$

from which it follows that $\text{Ext}^1(S, S) \cong \mathbb{F}_q$.

A.5. Explicit Description of $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$

1. The underlying vector space of $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ is free on the set of isomorphism classes, $\text{Iso}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$. This basis is indexed by the set of partitions, Par .

2. The multiplication on $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ is given by

$$[M] \cdot [N] = \sum_{[R] \in \text{Iso}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)} F_{M,N}^R [R]$$

where

$$F_{M,N}^R = \#\{\text{subrepresentations } L \text{ of } R \mid L \cong N, R/L \cong M\}.$$

The multiplicative neutral element of $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ is given by $1_{\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)} = [0]$.

3. The category $\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ satisfies the finite subobject condition and its Euler form vanishes. It follows that Green's coproduct makes the Hall algebra $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ into a bialgebra. Its comultiplication is given by

$$\Delta([M]) = \sum_{[R], [L] \in \text{Iso}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)} \frac{P_{R,L}^M}{a_M} [R] \otimes [L]$$

where a_M is the size of the automorphism group $\text{Aut}(M)$, and $P_{R,L}^M$ is the number of short exact sequences $0 \rightarrow L \rightarrow M \rightarrow R \rightarrow 0$. The counit $\varepsilon: \mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is given by

$$\varepsilon([M]) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } M = 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

4. We have a grading on $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ over the Grothendieck group $K(\mathbf{rep}^{\text{nil}}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)) \cong \mathbb{Z}$, given by

$$\deg([M]) = \dim(M).$$

This grading makes $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ into a graded bialgebra.

5. The graded bialgebra $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ is connected (i.e. its degree zero part is the ground field). It is therefore already a graded Hopf algebra.

A.6. Counting $\text{Gr}(d, n, \mathbb{F}_q)$

Recall A.11. For $k \in \mathbb{N}$ the *quantum integer* $[k]_q$ is given by

$$[k]_q = 1 + q + q^2 + \cdots + q^{k-1} = \frac{q^k - 1}{q - 1}.$$

We have $[0]_q = 0$ and $[1]_q = 1$. The *quantum factorial* is given by

$$[k]_q! = [k]_q [k-1]_q \cdots [1]_q.$$

For $k, l \in \mathbb{N}$ the *quantum binomial* is given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} k \\ l \end{bmatrix}_q = \frac{[k]_q \cdots [k-l+1]_q}{[l]_q!}.$$

If $l > k$ then this is zero, and if $l \leq k$ then the quantum binomial can also be expressed as

$$\begin{bmatrix} k \\ l \end{bmatrix}_q = \frac{[k]_q!}{[l]_q! [k-l]_q!}.$$

The quantum binomial satisfies the recursive relation

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

for all $k, l \in \mathbb{N}$. It hence follows by induction that the quantum binomial $\begin{bmatrix} k \\ l \end{bmatrix}_q$ is a polynomial in q with natural coefficients, i.e.

$$\begin{bmatrix} k \\ l \end{bmatrix}_q \in \mathbb{N}[q].$$

By taking the limit $q \rightarrow 1$ (i.e. by setting q equal to 1) the quantum integer $[k]$ becomes the usual integer k , the quantum factorial $[k]_q!$ becomes the usual factorial $k!$ and the quantum binomial coefficient $\begin{bmatrix} k \\ l \end{bmatrix}_q$ becomes the usual binomial $\binom{k}{l}$.

Lemma A.12. For all dimensions $n, d \geq 0$ we have

$$\#\text{Gr}(d, n, \mathbb{F}_q) = \begin{bmatrix} n \\ d \end{bmatrix}_q.$$

Proof. If $d > n$ then both numbers are zero, so suppose that $d \leq n$. Let

$$F_d(n) := (q^n - 1) \cdots (q^n - q^{d-1}) = (q - 1)^d q^{d(d-1)/2} [n]_q \cdots [n-d+1]_q$$

This is the number of linear independent tuples (v_1, \dots, v_d) of vectors in \mathbb{F}_q^n . We find that

$$\#\text{Gr}(d, n, \mathbb{F}_q) = \frac{F_d(n)}{\#\text{GL}(d, \mathbb{F}_q)}.$$

We have $\#\text{GL}(d, \mathbb{F}_q) = F_d(d)$ and thus

$$\#\text{Gr}(d, n, \mathbb{F}_q) = \frac{F_d(n)}{F_d(d)} = \frac{[n]_q \cdots [n-d+1]_q}{[d]_q \cdots [1]_q} = \frac{[n]_q \cdots [n-d+1]_q}{[d]_q!} = \begin{bmatrix} n \\ d \end{bmatrix}_q,$$

as claimed. □

Remark A.13. To see that $\#\text{Gr}(d, n, \mathbb{F}_q)$ is a polynomial in q with natural coefficients one can also use the disjoint decomposition of $\text{Gr}(d, n, \mathbb{F}_q)$ into Schubert cells. These cells are affine spaces, in the sense that they are isomorphic to \mathbb{F}_q^n for suitable n . It follows that $\#\text{Gr}(d, n, \mathbb{F}_q)$ is a sum of $q^{n_1} + \cdots + q^{n_t}$ for suitable powers $n_i \geq 1$. These powers do not depend on the choice of q .

A.7. Explicit Computations of Quantum Binomial Coefficients

We have

$$F_{(1^n), (1)}^{(1^{n+1})} = \# \text{Gr}(1, n+1, \mathbb{F}_q) = \# \mathbb{P}^n(\mathbb{F}_q) = \frac{q^{n+1} - 1}{q - 1} = [n+1]_q = 1 + q + \cdots + q^n,$$

and also

$$\begin{aligned} F_{(1^n), (1,1)}^{(1^{n+2})} &= \begin{bmatrix} n+2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}_q = \frac{[n+2]_q [n+1]_q}{[2]_q} \\ &= \frac{(1+q+\cdots+q^n)(1+q+\cdots+q^{n+1})}{1+q} \\ &= \begin{cases} (1+q+\cdots+q^n)(1+q^2+\cdots+q^n) & \text{if } n \text{ is even,} \\ (1+q^2+\cdots+q^{n-1})(1+q+\cdots+q^{n+1}) & \text{if } n \text{ is odd.} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Lastly we compute

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} n+3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}_q &= \frac{[n+3]_q [n+2]_q [n+1]_q}{[3]_q [2]_q [1]_q} = \frac{\frac{q^{n+3}-1}{q-1} \frac{q^{n+2}-1}{q-1} \frac{q^{n+1}-1}{q-1}}{\frac{q^3-1}{q-1} \frac{q^2-1}{q-1} \frac{q-1}{q-1}} \\ &= \frac{(q^{n+3}-1)(q^{n+2}-1)(q^{n+1}-1)}{(q^3-1)(q^2-1)(q-1)} \end{aligned}$$

We recall that the polynomial $x^k - 1$ divides the polynomial $x^l - 1$ (in $\mathbb{Z}[x]$) if and only if the integer k divides the integer l . Then

$$\frac{x^k - 1}{x^l - 1} = 1 + x^l + x^{2l} + \cdots + x^{k-l}.$$

We can therefore compute the above quotient by distinguishing between six cases, depending on how the powers

$$n+3, \quad n+2, \quad n+1$$

are divisible by 3 and 2. This in turn is uniquely determined by the residue class of n modulo 6.

Case 1. Suppose that $n \equiv 0$. Then $n+3$ is divisible by 3 and $n+2$ is divisible by 2. In this case

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} n+3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}_q &= \frac{q^{n+3}-1}{q^3-1} \cdot \frac{q^{n+2}-1}{q^2-1} \cdot \frac{q^{n+1}-1}{q-1} \\ &= (1+q^3+\cdots+q^n)(1+q^2+\cdots+q^n)(1+q+\cdots+q^n). \end{aligned}$$

Case 2. Suppose that $n \equiv 1$. Then $n+2$ is divisible by 3 and $n+3$ is divisible by 2. In this case

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} n+3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}_q &= \frac{q^{n+2}-1}{q^3-1} \cdot \frac{q^{n+3}-1}{q^2-1} \cdot \frac{q^{n+1}-1}{q-1} \\ &= (1+q^3+\cdots+q^{n-1})(1+q^2+\cdots+q^{n+1})(1+q+\cdots+q^n). \end{aligned}$$

Case 3. Suppose that $n \equiv 2$. Then $n + 1$ is divisible by 3 and $n + 2$ is divisible by 2. In this case

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} n+3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}_q &= \frac{q^{n+1} - 1}{q^3 - 1} \cdot \frac{q^{n+2} - 1}{q^2 - 1} \cdot \frac{q^{n+3} - 1}{q - 1} \\ &= (1 + q^3 + \cdots + q^{n-2})(1 + q^2 + \cdots + q^n)(1 + q + \cdots + q^{n+2}). \end{aligned}$$

Case 4. Suppose that $n \equiv 3$. Then $n + 3$ is divisible by 3 and $n + 1$ is divisible by 2. In this case

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} n+3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}_q &= \frac{q^{n+3} - 1}{q^3 - 1} \cdot \frac{q^{n+1} - 1}{q^2 - 1} \cdot \frac{q^{n+2} - 1}{q - 1} \\ &= (1 + q^3 + \cdots + q^n)(1 + q^2 + \cdots + q^{n-1})(1 + q + \cdots + q^{n+1}). \end{aligned}$$

Case 5. Suppose that $n \equiv 4$. Then $n + 2$ is divisible by both 3 and 2. We observe that

$$\frac{1 + q^3}{1 + q} = 1 - q + q^2$$

and hence for every odd positive integer m that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1 + q^3 + \cdots + q^{3m}}{1 + q} &= \frac{(1 + q^3) + q^6(1 + q^3) + \cdots + q^{3m-3}(1 + q^3)}{1 + q} \\ &= (1 - q + q^2)(1 + q^6 + \cdots + q^{3m-3}). \end{aligned}$$

We also observe that the integer $n - 1$ is divisible by 3, and that it is an odd multiple of 3 because $n + 2$ is divisible by 6 and therefore

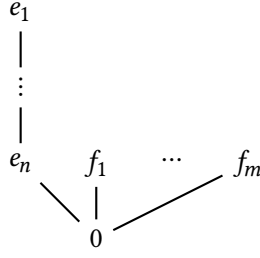
$$\frac{n-1}{3} + 1 = \frac{n+2}{3}$$

is even. We now find that

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} n+3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}_q &= \frac{q^{n+3} - 1}{q - 1} \cdot \frac{q^{n+2} - 1}{(q^3 - 1)(q + 1)} \cdot \frac{q^{n+1} - 1}{q - 1} \\ &= \frac{q^{n+3} - 1}{q - 1} \cdot \frac{1 + q^3 + \cdots + q^{n-1}}{q + 1} \cdot \frac{q^{n+1} - 1}{q - 1} \\ &= (1 + q + \cdots + q^{n+2})(1 - q + q^2)(1 + q^6 + \cdots + q^{n-4})(1 + q + \cdots + q^n). \end{aligned}$$

Case 6. Suppose that $n \equiv 5$. Then $n + 1$ is divisible by 3 and $n + 3$ is divisible by 2. In this case

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} n+3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}_q &= \frac{q^{n+1} - 1}{q^3 - 1} \cdot \frac{q^{n+3} - 1}{q^2 - 1} \cdot \frac{q^{n+2} - 1}{q - 1} \\ &= (1 + q^3 + \cdots + q^{n-2})(1 + q^2 + \cdots + q^{n+1})(1 + q + \cdots + q^{n+1}). \end{aligned}$$

Figure 3: The representations $N_{(n,1^m)}$.

A.8. Computing More Structure Constants for $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$

We use for $N_{(n,1)}$ the basis $e_1, \dots, e_n, f_1, \dots, f_m$ with

$$\alpha e_i = e_{i+1} \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha e_n = \alpha f_1 = \dots = \alpha f_m = 0$$

for $i = 1, \dots, n-1$, where α denotes the loop of Q . See Figure 3.

The coefficient $F_{(1^m)(n)}^{(n,1^m)}$ is the number of subrepresentations L of $N_{(n,1^m)}$ with $L \cong N_n$ and $N_{(n,1)}/L \cong N_{(1^m)}$. The condition $L \cong N_n$ means that L is cyclically generated by a vector

$$v = a_1 e_1 + \dots + a_n e_n + b_1 f_1 + \dots + b_m f_m$$

with $a_1 \neq 0$. We may assume that $a_1 = 1$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \langle \alpha^k v \mid k \geq 0 \rangle_{\mathbb{F}_q} \\ &= \langle e_1 + a_2 e_2 + \dots + a_n e_n + b_1 f_1 + \dots + b_m f_m, e_2 + a_2 e_3 + \dots + a_n e_{n-1}, \dots, e_n \rangle_{\mathbb{F}_q} \\ &= \langle e_1 + b_1 f_1 + \dots + b_m f_m, e_2, \dots, e_n \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

For any such subrepresentation L the quotient $N_{(n,1^m)}/L$ is m -dimensional and spanned by the residue classes $[f_1], \dots, [f_m]$. It is thus isomorphic to $N_{(1^m)}$. We get for every choice of coefficient $b_1, \dots, b_m \in \mathbb{F}_q$ a different subrepresentation of $N_{(n,1^m)}$. Hence

$$F_{(1^m)(n)}^{(n,1^m)} = \#\mathbb{F}_q^m = q^m.$$

The coefficient $F_{(n)(1^m)}^{(n,1^m)}$ is the number of subrepresentations L of $N_{(n,1^m)}$ with $L \cong N_{(1^m)}$ and $N_{(n,1^m)}/L \cong N_n$. The condition $L \cong N_{(1^m)}$ means precisely that L is an m -dimensional linear subspace of $\langle e_n, f_1, \dots, f_m \rangle_{\mathbb{F}_q}$. We note that if g is a vector of $\langle e_n, f_1, \dots, f_m \rangle_{\mathbb{F}_q}$ that is not contained in L then the residue classes

$$[e_1], \dots, [e_n], [g]$$

will be a basis of the quotient $N_{(n,1^m)}/L$. We claim that $N_{(n,1^m)}/L$ is isomorphic to N_n if and only if the subspace L does not contain the vector e_n .

Suppose first that e_1 is contained in L . Then we take for g any vector of $\langle e_n, f_1, \dots, f_m \rangle$ not contained in L . Then $\alpha[e_{n-1}] = [e_n] = 0$ and we find that

$$[e_1], \dots, [e_{n-1}] \quad \text{and} \quad [g]$$

are two Jordan chains for $N_{(n,1^m)}/L$. Thus $N_{(n,1^m)}/L$ is not isomorphic to N_n .

Suppose on the other hand that e_1 not contained in L . Then we can choose g as e_1 and find that the residue classes

$$[e_n], \dots, [e_1]$$

form a basis of $N_{(n,1^m)}/L$. This basis forms a single Jordan chain, whence $N_{(n,1^m)}/L$ is isomorphic to N_n .

We thus find that the structure constant $F_{(n),(1^m)}^{(n,1^m)}$ is the number of m -dimensional subspaces of $\langle e_n, f_1, \dots, f_m \rangle$ that does not contain e_n . The number of m -dimensional subspaces of $\langle e_n, f_1, \dots, f_m \rangle$ is according to Lemma A.12 given by the quantum binomial

$$\begin{bmatrix} m+1 \\ m \end{bmatrix}_q.$$

The number of m -dimensional subspaces of $\langle e_n, f_1, \dots, f_m \rangle$ that contains e_1 is equals the number of $(m-1)$ -dimensional subspaces of the quotient vector spaces $\langle e_n, f_1, \dots, f_m \rangle / \langle e_n \rangle \cong \langle f_1, \dots, f_m \rangle$. We see again from Lemma A.12 that there are

$$\begin{bmatrix} m \\ m-1 \end{bmatrix}_q$$

such subspaces. We hence find that

$$F_{(n),(1^m)}^{(n,1^m)} = \begin{bmatrix} m+1 \\ m \end{bmatrix}_q - \begin{bmatrix} m \\ m-1 \end{bmatrix}_q = \begin{bmatrix} m+1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}_q - \begin{bmatrix} m \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}_q = [m+1]_q - [m]_q = q^m.$$

A.9. Explicit Description of $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$

The Hall algebra $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ is a graded, cocommutative Hopf algebra (over the ground field \mathbb{C}). It is defined as follows:

- The underlying vector space of $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ is the free \mathbb{C} -vector space on the set $\text{Iso}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$. The set $\text{Iso}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ is indexed by the set of partitions Par .
- The multiplication of $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ is given by

$$[M] \cdot [N] := \sum_{[R] \in \text{Iso}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)} F_{M,N}^R [R]$$

where the structure coefficients $F_{M,N}^R$ are given by

$$F_{M,N}^R = \#\{\text{subrepresentations } L \text{ of } R \mid L \cong N, R/L \cong M\}.$$

The multiplicative neutral element of $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ is given by $1_{\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)} = [0]$.

- The grading of $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ is given by $\deg([M]) = \dim(M)$.

- The comultiplication of $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ is given by

$$\Delta([M]) = \sum_{\substack{[R], [L] \in \text{Iso}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1) \\ M \cong R \oplus L}} [R] \otimes [L].$$

We see in particular that an isomorphism class $[M]$ is primitive in $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ if and only if the representation M is indecomposable. We have seen that more generally the Lie algebra of primitive elements of $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ has a basis consisting of all such $[M]$. We have concluded from the theorem of Milnor–Moore that $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_q)$ is the universal enveloping algebra of its Lie algebra of primitive elements.

A.10. More on the Multiplication of $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$

The computation of the product $[N_i] \cdot [N_j]$ in $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ can be further generalized:

We find for all $i_1, \dots, i_r \geq 1$ and $j \geq 1$ that

$$[N_{(i_1, \dots, i_r)}] \cdot [N_j] = a[N_{(i_1, \dots, i_r, j)}] + \sum_{\lambda} b_{\lambda} [N_{\lambda}],$$

where λ runs through all distinct tupels of the form $\lambda = (i_1, \dots, i_k + j, \dots, i_r)$ with $1 \leq k \leq r$. The coefficient a is given by

$$a = \text{how often } j \text{ occurs in } (i_1, \dots, i_r, j)$$

and the coefficient of b_{λ} for $\lambda = (i_1, \dots, i_k + j, \dots, i_r)$ are given by

$$b_{\lambda} = \text{how often } i_k + j \text{ occurs in } \lambda.$$

Example A.14. We find that

$$\begin{aligned} [N_{(5,3,3,2,1)}] \cdot [N_2] &= 2[N_{(5,3,3,2,1,\overline{2})}] \\ &\quad + [N_{(\overline{7},3,3,2,1)}] + 2[N_{(5,\overline{5},3,2,1)}] + [N_{(5,3,3,\overline{4},1)}] + 3[N_{(5,3,3,2,\overline{3})}], \end{aligned}$$

where the entry of interest is overlined.

We can rewrite the above identity in a more systematic way: For every tupel $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_l)$ consisting of nonnegative integers $\lambda_i \geq 0$ and every $j \geq 0$ let

$$a(\lambda, j) := (\text{how often } j \text{ occurs in } \lambda) = \#\{1 \leq i \leq l \mid \lambda_i = j\}.$$

We denote for every $i = 1, \dots, l$ by ε_i the tupel that has 1 as its i -th entry and 0 otherwise. Then

$$\begin{aligned} [N_{\lambda}] \cdot [N_j] &= a((\lambda, j), j) [N_{(\lambda, j)}] + \sum_{i=1}^l \frac{a(\lambda + j\varepsilon_i, \lambda_i + j)}{a(\lambda, \lambda_i)} [N_{\lambda + j\varepsilon_i}] \\ &= (a(\lambda, j) + 1) [N_{(\lambda, j)}] + \sum_{i=1}^l \frac{a(\lambda, \lambda_i + j) + 1}{a(\lambda, \lambda_i)} [N_{\lambda + j\varepsilon_i}] \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

The coefficients $a(\lambda + j\varepsilon_i, \lambda_i + j)$ are the same as the $b_{\lambda + j\varepsilon_i}$ above. The normalization $a(\lambda, \lambda_i)$ ensures that those summands which occur multiple times are effectively only counted once.

Remark A.15. Let $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_l)$ be a partition and let $\lambda' = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{l-1})$. Then

$$\lambda = (\lambda', \lambda_l).$$

The above formulas do therefore yield the identity

$$\begin{aligned} N_\lambda = N_{(\lambda', \lambda_l)} &= \frac{1}{a((\lambda', \lambda_l), \lambda_l)} \left([N_{\lambda'}] \cdot [N_{\lambda_l}] - \sum_{i=1}^{l-1} \frac{a(\lambda', \lambda'_i + \lambda_l) + 1}{a(\lambda', \lambda'_i)} [N_{\lambda' + \lambda_l \epsilon_i}] \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{a(\lambda, \lambda_l)} \left([N_{\lambda'}] \cdot [N_{\lambda_l}] - \sum_{i=1}^{l-1} \frac{a(\lambda', \lambda'_i + \lambda_l) + 1}{a(\lambda', \lambda'_i)} [N_{\lambda' + \lambda_l \epsilon_i}] \right) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

The partitions λ' and $\lambda' + j\epsilon_i$ that appear on the right hand side are of strictly smaller length than λ . It hence follows from this formula by induction that $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ is generated as an algebra by the classes $[N_i]$ with $i \geq 1$.

A.11. More on Symmetric Functions

Warning A.16.

1. The ring of symmetric functions Λ is *not* the limit of $\Lambda^{(n+1)} \rightarrow \Lambda^{(n)}$ for $n \geq 0$ in the category of (commutative) algebras.

We consider for this the symmetric polynomials

$$f^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) := x_1 + x_1 x_2 + \dots + x_1 \cdots x_n.$$

The polynomials satisfy the compatibility condition

$$f^{(n+1)}(x_1, \dots, x_n, 0) = f^{(n)}$$

for every number of variables $n \geq 0$. But there exists no symmetric function $f \in \Lambda$ with

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

for every $n \geq 0$ since otherwise

$$n = \deg(f^{(n)}) \leq \deg(f)$$

for every $n \geq 0$, which is not possible. This shows that Λ together with the homomorphisms $\Lambda \rightarrow \Lambda^{(n)}$ is not the limit of the homomorphisms $\Lambda^{(n+1)} \rightarrow \Lambda^{(n)}$ for $n \geq 0$ in the category of rings.

2. The ring of symmetric functions Λ is *not* isomorphic to the algebras of symmetric polynomials

$$\mathbb{C}[x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots]^{\mathbb{S}_{\mathbb{N}}} \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbb{C}[x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots]^{\mathbb{S}_{\infty}}$$

where $\mathbb{S}_{\infty} = \text{colim}_{n \geq 0} (\mathbb{S}_n \hookrightarrow \mathbb{S}_{n+1})$.

Indeed, we observe that both $\mathbb{C}[x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots]^{\mathbb{S}_{\mathbb{N}}}$ and $\mathbb{C}[x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots]^{\mathbb{S}_{\infty}}$ are just the ground field \mathbb{C} : If a symmetric polynomial $f \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, x_2, \dots]$ were to contain a nontrivial monomial then it must also contain all permutations of this monomial. But there are infinitely many such permutations, while f contains only finitely many polynomials.

Suppose that more generally $(f^{(n)})_{n \geq 0}$ is any sequence of symmetric polynomials $f^{(n)} \in \Lambda^{(n)}$ that are compatible in the sense that $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ for every $n \geq 0$. Then the $f^{(n)}$ define a symmetric function $f \in \Lambda$ with $f^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ for every $n \geq 0$ if and only if the degrees $\deg(f^{(n)})$ are bounded, i.e. if and only if there exists some $K \geq 0$ with $\deg(f^{(n)}) \leq K$ for every $n \geq 0$.

Indeed, if such a symmetric function f exists then $\deg(f^{(n)}) \leq \deg(f)$ for every $n \geq 0$. If on the other hand such a bound K exists then we consider for every $k = 0, \dots, K$ the sequence $(f_k^{(n)})_{n \geq 0}$ of degree k parts. That the symmetric polynomials $f^{(n)}$ are compatible means that for every degree $k = 0, \dots, K$ the homogeneous symmetric polynomials $f_k^{(n)}$ are compatible. Thus there exists for every degree $k = 0, \dots, K$ a homogeneous symmetric function $f_k \in \Lambda_k$ with

$$f_k(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f_k^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

for every number of variables $n \geq 0$. It then follows for the symmetric function

$$f := f_0 + f_1 + \dots + f_K$$

in each degree $l = 0, \dots, K$ that

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n)_l = f_0(x_1, \dots, x_n)_k + \dots + f_k(x_1, \dots, x_n)_l = f_l(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f_l^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

for every $n \geq 0$ since each $f_l(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is homogeneous of degree l . This shows that

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

for every number of variables $n \geq 0$.

A.12. Monomial Symmetric Functions

For every number of variables $n \geq 0$ and partition $\lambda \in \text{Par}$ with $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_l)$ of length $l \leq n$ the corresponding *monomial symmetric polynomial* is given by

$$m_\lambda^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) := \sum \text{distinct permutations of } x_1^{\lambda_1} \dots x_l^{\lambda_l}.$$

if $n \geq l$, and by

$$m_\lambda^{(n)} := 0$$

if $n < l$. We have

$$m_\lambda^{(n+1)}(x_1, \dots, x_n, 0) = m_\lambda^{(n)}$$

for every number of variables $n \geq 0$, and each $m_\lambda^{(n)}$ is homogeneous of degree $|\lambda|$. We therefore get a well-defined homogeneous symmetric function

$$m_\lambda \in \Lambda_{|\lambda|},$$

which we call the *monomial symmetric function* associated to λ .

The symmetric polynomials $m_\lambda^{(n)}$ where λ is of length $\ell(\lambda) \leq n$ form a vector space basis of $\Lambda^{(n)}$, for every number of variables $n \geq 0$. It hence follows from Corollary 4.6 (similarly to Corollary 4.7) that the monomial symmetric functions m_λ with $\lambda \in \text{Par}$ form a vector space basis for Λ .

A.13. Regarding Λ as a Colimit

Remark A.17.

1. It follows from Corollary 4.6 for any two symmetric functions $f, g \in \Lambda$ that

$$f = g \iff f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = g(x_1, \dots, x_n) \text{ for some } n \geq \deg(f), \deg(g).$$

2. We can regard Λ as a colimit of suitable inclusions $\Lambda^{(n)} \rightarrow \Lambda^{(n+1)}$ for $n \geq 0$:

We have for every number of variables $n \geq 0$ an injective homomorphism of graded algebras $\Lambda^{(n)} \rightarrow \Lambda^{(n+1)}$ that is given on algebra generators by $e_k^{(n)} \rightarrow e_k^{(n+1)}$ for every $k = 0, \dots, n$. This is a right sided inverse for the homomorphism $\Lambda^{(n+1)} \rightarrow \Lambda^{(n)}$. In this way a symmetric polynomial in n variables can be extended to a symmetric polynomial in $n + 1$ variables.

We similarly have for every number of variables $n \geq 0$ a homomorphism of graded algebras $\Lambda^{(n)} \rightarrow \Lambda$ that is given on algebra generators by $e_k^{(n)} \rightarrow e_k$ for every $k = 0, \dots, k$.

We now find that Λ together with the homomorphisms $\Lambda^{(n)} \rightarrow \Lambda$ is a colimit of the homomorphisms $\Lambda^{(n)} \rightarrow \Lambda^{(n+1)}$ for $n \geq 0$. In this way we can regard Λ as a sort of increasing union of the algebras of symmetric polynomials.

A.14. Invariants of a Tensor Product

Lemma A.18. Let G, H be two groups. Let V be a representation of G and let W be a representation of H . Then

$$(V \otimes W)^{G \times H} = V^G \otimes W^H.$$

Proof. The inclusion $V^G \otimes W^H \subseteq (V \otimes W)^{G \times H}$ can be checked on simple tensors. Let on the other hand $x \in (V \otimes W)^{G \times H}$. We may choose a basis $(v_i)_{i \in I}$ of V and write $x = \sum_{i \in I} v_i \otimes w_i$ for some unique vectors $w_i \in W$. For every element $h \in H$ we then have

$$\sum_{i \in I} v_i \otimes w_i = x = (1, h)x = \sum_{i \in I} v_i \otimes (hw_i).$$

It follows from the uniqueness of the w_i that $hw_i = w_i$ for every $h \in H$ and every $i \in I$, and thus $w_i \in W^H$ for every $i \in I$. This shows that $x \in V \otimes W^H$. We find in the same way that $x \in V^G \otimes W^H$, and thus $x \in (V \otimes W^H) \cap (V^G \otimes W) = V^G \otimes W^H$. \square

A.15. Understanding the Isomorphism $H(Q, \mathbb{F}_1) \cong \Lambda$ on the Basis $[N_\lambda]$

A.15.1. Fixing Notation

For every tuple $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_l)$ of nonnegative integers $\lambda_i \geq 0$ and every $j \geq 0$ let

$$a(\lambda, k) := (\text{how often } k \text{ occurs in } \lambda) = \#\{1 \leq i \leq l \mid \lambda_i = k\},$$

and let

$$A(\lambda) := \prod_{k=0}^{\infty} a(\lambda, k)!.$$

This product is well-defined because $a(\lambda, j) = 0$ for all but finitely many $j \geq 0$. The number $A(\lambda)$ is the cardinality of the stabilizer of the tuple λ under the permutation action of the symmetric group S_l .

We denote for every i by ε_i the tuple whose i -th entry is 1 and whose other entries are 0. We note that for every $j \geq 1$ we have

$$a(\lambda + j\varepsilon_i, k) = \begin{cases} a(\lambda, k) & \text{if } k \neq \lambda_i, \lambda_i + j, \\ a(\lambda, k) - 1 & \text{if } k = \lambda_i, \\ a(\lambda, k) + 1 & \text{if } k = \lambda_i + j. \end{cases}$$

It follows that

$$A(\lambda + j\varepsilon_i) = \prod_{k=0}^{\infty} a(\lambda + j\varepsilon_i, k)! = \prod_{k=0}^{\infty} a(\lambda, k)! \cdot \frac{a(\lambda, \lambda_i + j) + 1}{a(\lambda, \lambda_i)} = A(\lambda) \cdot \frac{a(\lambda + j\varepsilon_i, \lambda_i + j)}{a(\lambda, \lambda_i)}.$$

For every polynomial $f^{(n)} \in \mathbb{C}[x_1, \dots, x_n]^{S_n}$ we denote its *symmetrization* by

$$R^{(n)}(f^{(n)}) := \sum_{w \in S_n} w.f^{(n)}.$$

We note that if $g^{(n)} \in \Lambda^{(n)}$ is a symmetric polynomial then

$$\begin{aligned} R^{(n)}(f^{(n)}g^{(n)}) &= \sum_{w \in S_n} w.(f^{(n)}g^{(n)}) \\ &= \sum_{w \in S_n} (w.f^{(n)})(w.g^{(n)}) \\ &= \sum_{w \in S_n} (w.f^{(n)})g^{(n)} \\ &= R^{(n)}(f^{(n)})g^{(n)}. \end{aligned}$$

A.15.2. A Calculation

Suppose now that $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_l)$ is any of positive integers $\lambda_i \geq 1$ and that $j \geq 0$ is any nonnegative integer. We compute the product

$$m_\lambda^{(n)} \cdot p_j^{(n)}$$

for any number of variables n with $n > l$. For this we fill the tuple λ on the right with zeroes to reach a tuple μ of length n , i.e.

$$\mu = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_n, \mu_{n+1}, \dots, \mu_n) = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_l, 0, \dots, 0).$$

We have

$$m_\lambda^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = m_\mu^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{1}{A(\mu)} R^{(n)}(x_1^{\mu_1} \dots x_n^{\mu_n}).$$

We can hence compute the above product as

$$\begin{aligned}
m_\lambda^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) \cdot p_j^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= \frac{1}{A(\mu)} R^{(n)}(x_1^{\mu_1} \dots x_n^{\mu_n}) \cdot p_j^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\
&= \frac{1}{A(\mu)} R^{(n)}(x_1^{\mu_1} \dots x_n^{\mu_n} \cdot p_j^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n)) \\
&= \frac{1}{A(\mu)} R^{(n)}(x_1^{\mu_1} \dots x_n^{\mu_n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^j) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{A(\mu)} R^{(n)}(x_1^{\mu_1} \dots x_i^{\mu_i+j} \dots x_n^{\mu_n}) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{A(\mu + j\epsilon_i)}{A(\mu)} m_{\mu+j\epsilon_i}^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{a(\mu + j\epsilon_i, \mu_i + j)}{a(\mu, \mu_i)} m_{\mu+j\epsilon_i}^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n)
\end{aligned}$$

For the summands $i = 1, \dots, l$ we can replace the role of μ by that of λ . For the summands $i = l+1, \dots, n$ we have $\mu_i = 0$ and the first l entries of $\mu + j\lambda\epsilon_i$ equal that of λ . We therefore have for every $i = l+1, \dots, n$ that

$$a(\mu + j\epsilon_i, \mu_i + j) = a(\mu + j\epsilon_i, j) = a(\lambda, j) + 1 = a((\lambda, j), j)$$

as well as

$$a(\mu, \mu_i) = a(\mu, 0) = n - l.$$

We also have for every $i = l+1, \dots, n$ that

$$\begin{aligned}
m_{\mu+j\epsilon_i}^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) &= \frac{1}{A(\mu + j\epsilon_i)} R^{(n)}(x_1^{\mu_1} \dots x_l^{\mu_l} x_i^j) \\
&= \frac{1}{A(\mu + j\epsilon_{l+1})} R^{(n)}(x_1^{\mu_1} \dots x_l^{\mu_l} x_{l+1}^j) \\
&= m_{\mu+j\epsilon_{l+1}}^{(n)} \\
&= m_{(\lambda, j)}^{(n)}
\end{aligned}$$

We hence find that the summands for $i = l+1, \dots, n$ give

$$\sum_{i=l+1}^n \frac{a((\lambda, j), j)}{n - l} m_{(\lambda, j)}^{(n)} = m_{(\lambda, j)}^{(n)}.$$

We find altogether that

$$m_\lambda^{(n)} \cdot p_j^{(n)} = a((\lambda, j), j) m_{(\lambda, j)}^{(n)} + \sum_{i=1}^l \frac{a(\lambda + j\epsilon_i, \lambda_i + j)}{a(\lambda, \lambda_i)} m_{\lambda+j\epsilon_i}^{(n)}.$$

This is a relation for symmetric polynomials that holds for all $n > l$. It thus gives the equality of symmetric functions

$$m_\lambda \cdot p_j = a((\lambda, j), j) m_{(\lambda, j)} + \sum_{i=1}^l \frac{a(\lambda + j\epsilon_i, \lambda_i + j)}{a(\lambda, \lambda_i)} m_{\lambda + j\epsilon_i}.$$

This can also be expressed as

$$m_{(\lambda, j)} = \frac{1}{a((\lambda, j), j)} \left(m_\lambda \cdot p_j - \sum_{i=1}^l \frac{a(\lambda + j\epsilon_i, \lambda_i + j)}{a(\lambda, \lambda_i)} m_{\lambda + j\epsilon_i} \right) \quad (7)$$

$$= \frac{1}{a((\lambda, j), j)} \left(m_\lambda \cdot p_j - \sum_{i=1}^l \frac{a(\lambda, \lambda_i + j) + 1}{a(\lambda, \lambda_i)} m_{\lambda + j\epsilon_i} \right). \quad (8)$$

Suppose that $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_l)$ is a partition of positive length $l \geq 1$. Then it follows for the partition $\lambda' := (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{l-1})$ that

$$\lambda = (\lambda', \lambda_l)$$

and therefore

$$\begin{aligned} m_\lambda = m_{(\lambda', \lambda_l)} &= \frac{1}{a((\lambda', \lambda_l), \lambda_l)} \left(m_{\lambda'} \cdot p_{\lambda_l} - \sum_{i=1}^{l-1} \frac{a(\lambda', \lambda'_i + \lambda_l) + 1}{a(\lambda', \lambda'_i)} m_{\lambda' + \lambda_l \epsilon_i} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{a(\lambda, \lambda_l)} \left(m_{\lambda'} \cdot p_{\lambda_l} - \sum_{i=1}^{l-1} \frac{a(\lambda', \lambda'_i + \lambda_l) + 1}{a(\lambda', \lambda'_i)} m_{\lambda' + \lambda_l \epsilon_i} \right). \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

A.15.3. Consequences

Proposition A.19. Under the isomorphism $\mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$ from Section 5 the class $[\mathbf{N}_\lambda]$ corresponds to the monomial symmetric function m_λ , for every partition $\lambda \in \text{Par}$.

Proof. We denote the isomorphism as in Section 5 by $\Phi : \Lambda \rightarrow \mathbf{H}(Q, \mathbb{F}_1)$. We show the assertion by induction over the length of λ . If $\ell(\lambda) = 0$ then $[\mathbf{N}_\lambda] = [0] = 1$ and also $[m_\lambda] = 1$. If $\ell(\lambda) = 1$ then $\lambda = (k)$ for some positive integer $k \geq 1$ and thus

$$\Phi([\mathbf{N}_\lambda]) = \Phi([\mathbf{N}_k]) = p_k = m_{(k)} = m_\lambda.$$

The second to last equality (which is an equality of symmetric functions) holds because

$$m_{(k)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum \{\text{distinct permutations of } x_1^k\} = x_1^k + \dots + x_n^k = p_k(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

for every number of variables $n \geq 0$.

For the induction step we consider the two identities (6) and (9). If $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_l)$ then for $\lambda' := (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{l-1})$ these identities tell us that

$$[\mathbf{N}_\lambda] = \frac{1}{a(\lambda, \lambda_l)} \left([\mathbf{N}_{\lambda'}] \cdot [\mathbf{N}_{\lambda_l}] - \sum_{i=1}^{l-1} \frac{a(\lambda', \lambda'_i + \lambda_l) + 1}{a(\lambda', \lambda'_i)} [\mathbf{N}_{\lambda' + \lambda_l \epsilon_i}] \right)$$

and similarly

$$m_\lambda = \frac{1}{a(\lambda, \lambda_l)} \left(m_{\lambda'} \cdot p_{\lambda_l} - \sum_{i=1}^{l-1} \frac{a(\lambda', \lambda'_i + \lambda_l) + 1}{a(\lambda', \lambda'_i)} m_{\lambda' + \lambda_l \epsilon_i} \right).$$

We note that the partitions that appear on the right hand sides of these equations are all of strictly smaller length than λ . It follows from the induction hypothesis that the right hands sides correspond to each other under Φ . The same does therefore hold for the left hand sides. \square

References

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